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## GESENIUS'S

## HEBREW GRAMMAR,

WITII
READING BOOK.

## GESENIUS'S

## HEBREW GRAMMAR,

## ENLARGED AND IMPROVED BY

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## WITH A HEBREW READING BOOK, prepared by the translator.



## L O N D O N : <br> SAMUEL BAGSTER AND SONS;

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## A COMPARATIVE TABLE OF ANCTENT ALPHABETS．

| hebrew． | NAME AND POWER <br> of tee HEBREW LETTERS． | $\begin{gathered} \text { RAB. } \\ \text { RINIC } \\ \text { HEBREW } \end{gathered}$ | arabic． | $\begin{aligned} & \text { s.ama. } \\ & \text { RITAS. } \end{aligned}$ | syriac． | phexician． | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ANCIENT } \\ & \text { HEBREW. } \end{aligned}$ | ancient greek． |
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[^0]THE

## HEBREW GRAMMAR.

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## INTRODUCTION.

## Sect. 1.

## the shemitic languages in general.

1. The Hebrew is but a single branch of a large stock of languages in Western Asia, which was native in Palestine, Phœnicia, Syria, Mesopotania, Babylonia, Arabia: that is, in the countries from the Mediterranean Sea to the 'Tigris, and from the Armenian mountains to the south coast of Arabia. In early antiquity, moreover, it becane diffused from Arabia over Ethiopia, and, by means of Phonician colonies, over many islands and shores of the Mediterranean, but especially over the whole Carthaginian coast.

There is no name, sanctioned by long usage, for the nations and languages united in this stock. The name Shemites, Shemitic languages (suggested by Gen. x. 21, etc., where most of the nations using these tongues are derived from Shem) is, however, generally received at present, and may well be retained in the absence of a better.*
2. This Shemitic class of langrages consists of three principal divisions: I.) The Arabic, which has its seat in the south of the territory of the Shemites. To this belongs the Athiopic as a branch of the sonthern Arabic (Ilimyaritic), $\dagger$ and the language of the inscriptions on Sinai as an offspring of the northern Arabic. $\ddagger$ II.) The Aramaan in the north and north-east; which is called Syriac, in the form in which it appears in the Christian Aramman literature, but Chuldee, as it exists in the Aramæan writings of the Jews. To these writings belong some later portions of the Old Testament, viz., Ezra iv. S-vi. 18, and vii. 12-26;

[^1]1):m. ii. 4-vii. 28.* As the Chaldee frecuently presents a Hebrew colouring, so the Sumarilun exhibits a strong admixture of Hebrew forms, although, according to its fundamental character, it belonges to the Aramæan. The Aramean of the Nissorerems (John's disciples, Sabians $\dagger$ ) is a very low and corrupt dialect, and finst so the vernacular Syriac of the present day. III.) 'The Hebrew, with which the C'muanitish and I'humician (Punic) stand in close connexion, occupies in a measure, according to its character and geographical situation, a middle place between the Arabie and the Aramaan.

All these languages stand to each other in much the same relation, as those of the Germanic fimily (Gothic, ancient Northern, Danish, Swedish; High and Low (irrman in more aneient and more modern dialects), or as those of the Slavic (Lithumian, Lettish; ancient Slavic, Servian, Russian; Polish, Bohemian). They are now cither wholly extinet, as the Phœnician, or they exist only in a degenerate form, as the modern Syriae among the Jews and Syrian Christians in Mesopotamia and Kîrlistan, $\ddagger$ the Athiopic in the newer Abyssinian dialects (Tigré, Amharie), and also the Ilebrew among a portion of the modern Jews (although these in their writing aim especially at a reproduction of the Old 'Testament language). The Arabic is the only one that has not only kept to this day its original abode, Arabia proper, but has also spread abroad on all sides into the regions of other tongues.

The Shemitic family of languages was bordered on the east and north by another still more widely extended, which became diffused under most diverse forms, from India to the west of Europe, and is called the Indo-Germanic, as embracing the Indian (Sanskrit), ancient and modern Persian, Greek, Latin, Slavic, and Gothic, together with the other German languages. With the ancient Egyptian, from which the Coptic is derived, the Shemitic came many ways into contact in rery carly times. Both have accordingly much in common, but their mutual relation is as jet not accurately defined.§ The Chinese, the Japanese, the Tartar, and other languages have a fundamentally different character.
3. The grammatical structure of the Shemitic languages has many peculiarities, which, as a whole, constitute its distinctive character, although many of them are found singly also in other tongues. These peculiarities are: a) Among the consonants, which always form the main body of these languages, are many gutturals varying in grade; the vowels, originating in the three primary sounds

[^2]( $a, i, u$ ), serve for more subordinate distinctions; $b$ ) most of the radical words consist of three consonants; c) the verb has only two forms of tenses, with a peculiarly limited usage, and great regularity and analogy prevail in the formation of verbals; $d$ ) the noun has only two genders and a more simple indication of ease; e) in the pronoun all oblique cases are indicated by appended forms (suffixes); $f$ ) scarcely any compounds appear in terbs or nouns (except proper names); q) in the syntax is found a simple combination of sentences, without much periodic subordination of members.
4. In respect, also, to the character of their lexicography, the Shemitic tongues vary essentially from the Indo-Germanic ; yet they appear to have more in common here than in their grammatical structure. A great number of stems and roots* resemble in sound those of the Indo-Germanic class. But irrespectively of expressions obviously borrowed (sce below), the actual similarity is reduced, partly to words which imitate sounds (onomatopoetica), and partly to those in which the same, or a similar, sense results from the nature of the similarity of sounds, according to a universal law of human speech. All this, however, is insufficient to establish an listoric (gentilic) affinity, which latter can only be proved by an additional agreement in the grammatical structure itself. $\dagger$

As onomatopoctics, or roots similar in the nature of their sounds, may be classed together


 gratter, Eng. grate, seratch, Germ. kratzen; Pָּרָ. frango, Germ. brechen [our break, Welsh brech, briw], ete. An example somewhat different is am, ham (sam), gam, kam, in the sense of together.


 with the corresponding sibilant Sansk. sum, Greek oiv, ǧv, द̌vós = кowós, Goth. sama, Germ. sammt, sammeln. Notwithstanding, much in this list is of doubtful affinity.

[^3]Essentially different from this more internal relationship between the languages, is the mutual adoption of words one from another (borrowed words). Thus,-
a) When Indian, Jegyptian, and l'ersian objects are called in Hebrew by their native names ;
 Scacos, Persian pleasure-garlen, park; ; logaii, pencocks. Several such worls are found also in the Greek, as ŋip (Sansk. kapi) ape, кฑิтos, кท̂ßos:
b) When Shemitic words, names of $A$ siatic products and articles of commerce, have passed over


 like transitions may have been brought about by l'hœnician commerce.
5. As no alphabet is so perfect as to express all the modifications of sounds in a language, so the Shemitic had from the beginning this striking imperfection, that the consonants only (which indeed form the essential part of the language) were arranged in the line as real letters. Of the vowels only the longer ones, and even these not always, were represented by certain consonants (§ 7). It was not till a later period that all the vowels were indicated by means of small signs (points or strokes above and below the line, $\S 8$ ) subordinate to the letters, but which were wholly omitted for more practised readers. These languages are written always from right to left.* However dissimilar the Shemitic written characters may appear now, they have undoubtedly all come, by various modifications, from one and the same original alphabet, of which the truest copy now extant is the Phouician, from which also the ancient Greek, and through it all other European, characters were derived.

For a view of the Phœnician alphabet and of the oriental and occidental characters immediately derived therefrom, sce Gesenii Monumenta Phoenieia, (Leipzig, 1837, Tom. I.-III. 4to.) Tab. 1-5, comp. p. 15, ctc., and his article Paläographie, in Ersch und Gruber's Encyclopädle, Scc. III., Bd. 9, with its proper illustration in Taf. 1.
6. In regard to the relative age of these languages, the oldest written works are found in Hebrew (sce § 2); the Aramæan begin about the time of Cyrus (in the book of Ezra) ; the Arabic not till the earliest centuries after Christ (Himyaritic inscriptions, the Ethiopic version of the Bible in the fourth century; and the

[^4]northern Arabic literature since the sixth century). But distinct from this is the question, as to which of these languages has adhered longest and most true to the original Shemitic character, or which of these has come to us in a more antique appearance of its development. For the slower or quicker progress of a language spoken by a people depends on causes quite distinct from the development of a literature; and often the structure of a language is materially altered, before it attains to a literature, especially by early contact with foreign tongues. So in the Shemitic department, the Aramæan dialects exhibit the earliest and greatest decay,* and next to them the Hebrew-Canaanitish; the Arabic was the longest to maintain the natural fulness of its forms, being preserved undisturbed among the secluded tribes of the desert, until the Mahomedan revolution, when it suffered considerable decay. It was not till so late a period as this that the Arabic reached nearly the same point at which we find the Hebrew, even as early as the times of the Old Testament. $\dagger$

This accounts for the facts (erroncously considered so very surprising) that the ancient Hebrew, in its grammatical structure, agrees more with the modern than with the ancient Arabic, and that the latter, although it appears as a written language at a later period, retains jet, in many respects, a fuller structure and fresher vowel system than the other Shemitic languages, and therefore takes a place among them similar to that which the Sanskrit occupies among the Indo-Germanic, or the Gothic in the narrow circle of the Germanic. The Lithuanian, as compared with the other tongues properly called Slavic, shows how a language may preserve its fuller structure even in the midst of decaying sister tongues. So the Doric preserved with great tenacity older sounds and forms; and so the Friesic and Icelandic among the German and Northern languages. But even the most steadfast and enduring structure in a language often deteriorates in single forms and inflexions; while, on the other hand, we find here and there, in the midst of universal decay, traces of the original and the ancient. Such is the case with the Shemitic languages. Even the Arabic has its chasms and its later growth; yet in general it is entitled to the precedence, particularly in its rowel system.
To establish and work out these principles would be the province of a grammar for comparing the Shemitic languages with one another. From what has been adranced, however, it follows1) that the Hebrew language, as it appears in the ancient sacred literature of the Jews, has suffered more considerably in its structure than the Arabic, which appears later in our historical horizon; 2) that we are still not to concede to the Arabic the priorty in all respects ; 3) that, finally, it is a mistake to consider, with some, that the Aramaan, on account of its simplicity (oceasioned, in fact, by derangement of structure and curtailing of forms), is the more original model of the speech of the Shemites.

[^5]On the character, literature, grammars, and lexicons of these languages, see Gesenius's Preface to his Mib. Hundürrterbuch, from 2nd to the edition. [Translated in the American Liblical Ricpository, vol. iii.]

Sect. 2.

## SKETCH OF 'THE HISTORY OF' THE HEBREW LANGUAGE.

(Sice Gesenius's Geschichte der hebraisehen Sprache und Schrift. Leipzig, 1815. §\$ 5-18.)

1. This language was the mother tongue of the Hebrew or Israchitish people, during the period of their independence. The nane, Hebrew lannuage (jiv?
 appears rather to have been the name in use among those who were not Israclites. lt is called, Is. xix. 18, language of Canaan (from the country in which it was spoken). In 2 Kings xviii. 26 (comp. Is. xxxvi. 11, 13), and Neh. xiii. 24, persons are said to speak תיְְיְּ Judaicè, in the Jews' language, in accordance with the later usage which arose after the removal of the ten tribes, when the name Jew was extended to the whole nation (Hag., Neh., Esth.).
 a national name of honour, and was applied by the people to themselves with a patriotic reference to their descent from illustrious ancestors; the former was probably the older and less significant name by which they were known among foreigners, on which account it is seldom used in the Old 'Testament, except when they are distinguished from another people (Gen. xl. 15; xliii. 32), or when persons who are not Israelites are introduced as speaking (Gen. xxxix. 14, 17; xli. 12; comp. the Lcx. under 'עיְִ?). The Greeks and Romans, as P'ausanias and Tacitus, and so also Josephus, use only the name Hebrews. It may be regarded as an appellative, meaning what is beyond, people from the country on the other side, with reference to the country beyond the Euphrates, from land on the other side, with the addition of the derivative syllable ${ }^{-}$( (§86, No. 5). This appellation might then have been given to the colony which, under Abraham, migrated from the regions east of the Euphrates into the land of Canaan (see Gen. xiv. 13). The Hebrew genealogists, however, explain it, as a patronymic, by sons of Eber (Gen. x. 21. Num. xxiv. 24).

In the times of the New Testament, the term Hebrew ( $£ \beta$ païoti, John v. 2; xix. 13, 17, 20 ; $\dot{\varepsilon} \beta$ рais $\delta$ бúdeктоя, Acts xxi. 40 ; xxii. 2 ; xxvi. $14 ;$ ) was also applied to what was then the vernacular language of Palestine (sec No. 5 of this section), in distinction from the Greek. Josephus, who died about A. D. 95, muderstands by it the ancient Hebrew as well as the rernacular of his time.

The name lingua sancta was first given to the ancient Hebrew in the Chaldee versions of the Old Testament, because it was the language of the sacred books, in distinction from the Chaldec, the : popular language, which was called lingua profana.
2. In the oldest written monuments of this language, contained in the Pentatench, we find it in nearly the same form in which it appears down to the Babylonish exile, and even later; and we have no historical documents of an earlier date, by which we can investigate its progressive development. So far as we can trace its history, Canaan was its proper home: it was essentially the language of
the Canaanitish or Phœenician* race, by which Palestine was inhabited before the immigration of Abraham's descendants, with whom it was transferred to Egypt and brought back again to Canaan.

That the Canaanitish tribes in Palestine spoke the language now called Hebrew, is proved by


No less do the remaining fragments of the Phœnician and Punic language agree with the Hebrew. These are found, partly, in their own peculiar character (§ 1,5) in inscriptions (about 130 in number) and on coins (see copies in Gesenii Monumenta Phaxicia, T. III. Tab. 6-48, and the explanations on pp. 90-328; Judas, Etude de la Lungue Phénicienne, Paris, 4to, 1847; Bourgade, T'vison d'or de la Lang. Phén., Paris, fol. 1852; De Luynes, Memoire sur le surcophage dr E'smunazar, Paris, 4to. 1856), and partly in ancient Greek and Latin authors, as, for instance, in Plauti Pomulus, 5, 1, 2, where an entire piece is preserved. From the former source we ascertain the native orthography, and from the latter the pronunciation and vowel sounds, so that from both together we get a distinct notion of this language, and of its relation to the Hebrew.

Deviations in the orthograply and infexion of words are, e. g. the almost constant omission of
 and the feminine ending in $\Omega$ (ath) even in the absolute state ( $§ 80,2$ ), co-existing with that of $\boldsymbol{N}(\hat{o})$, and many others. More striking are the deviations in pronunciation, especially in Punic, where the $\mathfrak{i}$ is generally sounded as $\hat{u}$, c. g. ט. (head); and where we find the obscure obtuse $y$ often in the place of short $i$ and $c$, e. g. הִą
 collection of the grammatical peculiarities in Mon. Phonicia, p. 430, etc., and Movers' article Plönizien, in Ersch and Gruber's Encyclop., Sect. III. Bd. 24, S. 434, ctc.
3. The remains of this language, which are extant in the Old Testanent, enable us to distinguish but two periods in its history. The first, which may be called its golden age, extends to the close of the Babylonish exile, at which epoch the second or silver age commences.

The former embraces the larger portion of the books of the Old Testament; viz., of prose writings, the Pentatcuch, Joshua, Julges, Ruth, Samuel, and Kings; of poetical writings, the Psalms (with the exception of many later ones), Proverbs, Canticles, Job; of the earlicr prophets, in the following chronological order:-Joel, Amos, Hosea, Isaiah, Micah, Zephaniah, Habakkuk, Nahum, Obadiah, Jeremiah, Ezekiel. The writings of the last two, who lived and taught just before the commencement and during the first years of the captivity, as well as the latter part of the book of Isaiah (chapters 40-66, together with some of the earlier chapters $\dagger$ ), stand on the borders of the two ages.

[^6]The point of time at which we are to date the comenencement of this period, and of Hebrew literature in general, is certainly as early as that of Moses, even if the Pentateuch, in its present shape and compass, be considered a work remodelled at a later period. For the history of the language, and for our present object, it is sufficient to remark, that the Pentateuch certainly contains some peculiarities of langunge which have the appearance of archaisms. When these books were composed, the words with he $(\$ 2, \mathrm{Rem} .6$ ), and and used also for she, and young woman (like io mais and ij $\pi \alpha i s)$. Some harsh forms of words, e. g.


On the other hand, in Jeremiah and Ezekiel are found decided approximations to that Aramæan colouring which distinguishes the language of the second or silver age. See No. 5.
4. In the books of the first period, which cover about 1000 years, we find considerable differences in language and style, owing partly to the difference of date and place, and partly to the individual gifts of the writers: e. g. Isaiah writes quite differently from the later Jeremiah, as also from his own contemporary Micah; and the historical books not only differ according to their dates, like Judges and Kings, but also contain older documents strikingly different in language and style from those of the later writer himself. Yet the structure of the language, and, with trifling exceptions, its store of words and its usage, are on the whole the same, especially in the prose works. But the language of poetry is everywhere distinguished from prose, not only by a rhythm consisting in measured parallel members, but also by peculiar words, forms, and significations of words, and constructions in syntax; although this distinction is not so strongly marked as it is, for example, in Greek. Of these poctical idioms, however, the greater part occur in the kindred languages, especially the Aramæan, as the ordinary modes of expression, and probably are to be regarded partly as archaisms, which were retained in poetry, and partly as enrichments, which the poets who knew Aramæan transferred into the Hebrew.* The prophets, moreover, in respect to language and rhythm, are to be regarded almost entirely as poets, except that in their poetical discourses the sentences run on to greater length, and the parallelism is less measured and regular: than in the writings of those who are properly styled poets. The language of the later prophets, on the contrary, approximates more to that of prose.

On the rhythm of Hebrew poctry, see De Wette's Commentar über dic Psalmen, Einleitung, § 7. $\dagger$ [The subject is briefly treated in the Reading Book at the end of this Grammar.]
符 man;

[^7]Under poetical significations of words may be ranked the use of certain poetical epithets for
 היחִירֶ unica, that which is dearest, for life.

Examples of poetical forms are, the longer forms of prepositions of place (§ 103, 3), e. g. . $\quad$ 步 $=$
 for $\square, \square-\square-(\S 58)$; the plural ending $i \neq$ for $\square^{\circ}-(\S 87,1)$. Among the peculiarities of Syntax, are, the far less frequent use of the article, of the relative, and of the accusative particle ת ת ; the use of the construct state even before prepositions, and of the apocoputed future in the signification of the common future ( $\$ 128$, Rem. 2) ; and in general an energetic brevity of expression.
5. The second or silver age of the Hebrew language and literature, extending from the return of the Jews froin the exile to the time of the Maccabees, about 160 years before Christ, is chiefly distinguished by an approximation to the Aramæan or Chaldee dialect. To the use of this dialect, so nearly related to the Hebrew, the Jews easily accustomed themselves while in Babylonia, and after their return it became the popular language, exerting a constantly-increasing influence on the ancient Hebrew as the language of books, in prose as well as poetry, and at last banishing it from common use. Yet the Hebrew continued to be known and written by Iearned Jews.

The relation of the two languages, as they existed together during this period, may be well illustrated by that of the High and Low German in Lower Saxony, or by that of the High German and the popular dialects in Southern Germany and Switzerland; for in these cases the popular dialect exerts more or less influence on the High German, both oral and written, of cultivated society. It is a false impression, derived from a misinterpretation of Neh. viii. 8, that the Jews, during their exile, had wholly forgotten their ancient language, and were obliged to learn its meaning from the priests and scribes.
The Old Testament Scriptures belonging to this sccond period, in all of which that Chaldee colouring appears, though in different degrees, are the following, viz.-Ezra, Nehemiah, Chronicles, Esther; the prophetical books of Jonah,* Haggai, Zechariah, Malachi, Danicl; of the poctical writings, Ecelesiastes, and the later Psalms. These books are also, as literary works, decidedly inferior to those of earlier date; though this period is not wanting in compositions, which, in purity of language and poetic merit, searcely yield to the productions of the golden age ; e. g. several of the later Psalms (cxx. etc., cxxxvii., cxxxix.).

To this later form of the language, as affected by the influence of the Chaldce, belong,-
Words, for which others are used by the earlier writers; e. g. 该; time $=$ y


Peculiarities of grammar; e. g. the frequent scriptio plena of $\mathfrak{i}$ and $\because$, as $7 \boldsymbol{T}$

[^8]and even שimp for substantives in $i, i-\frac{1}{7}, \pi$, etc.

We are not to regard as Chaldaisms all the peculiarities of these later writers. Some of them are not found in Chaldee, and must have belonged in carly times to the Hebrew popular dialect, especially in northern l'alestine, where, perhaps, Judges and Canticles [and Jonah] were composed; and hence we may account for the use in these more ancient books of $\underset{\forall}{\dot{*}}$ for obtaneed also in Phenician.

Remark 1. Of peculiarities of dialeet in the ancient Hebrew, only a few slight traces are found. Thus from Julges xii. 6 it appears that the Ephraimites always pronounced $\dot{\forall}$ like $\dot{6}$ or $D$; and in Neh. xiii. 23, 24, the dialect of Ashdod (of the Philistines) is mentioned.
2. It is not to be supposed that the remains of old Hebrew literature in our possession contain all the treasures of the ancient language. These must have been more copious and richer than they now appear in the canonical books of the Old Testament, which are only a part of the national literature of the ancient Hebrews.

## Sect. 3. <br> GRAMMATICAL TREATISES ON THE HEBREW LANGUAGE.

(Gesenius's Gesch. der hebr. Sprache, §§ 19-39.)

1. After the gradual extinction of the Hebrew as a spoken language, and the collection of the books of the Old Testament into the canon, the Jews applied themselyes to interpretation and criticism of the text, and to the preparation of translations of this their sacred codex. The oldest version is that into Greek by the so-called Seventy interpreters (LXX). It was executed by several translators, and at different periods of time. The work was begun with the translation of the Pentateuch, under Ptolemy Philadelphus, at Alexindria. Its design was to meet the wants of Jews residing in Alexandria and other Grecian cities; and was made, in part, from a knowledge of the Hebrew, whilst yet a living language. At a
 lations) were made in Palestine and Babylonia. The interpretations, drawn in part from alleged traditions, relate almost exclusively to civil and ritual laws, and to doctrinal theology. These, as well as the equally unscientific observations on various readings, are preserved in the Talmud, of which the first part (Mishna) was composed in the third century of the Christian era, the second part (Gemara) not till the sixth. The Mishna forms the commencement of the modern Hebrew literature, while the language of the Gemara closely approximates to the Chaldee dialect.
2. To the intervalbetween the conclusion of the Talmud, and the age of the first writers on the grammar of the language, is especially to be assigned the application of rowel-signs to the hitherto unpointed text $(\$ 7,3)$. Of the same period
is the collection of critical observations called the Masora ( which our received text of the Old Testament was settled, continued down in MSS., and from which it bears the name of the Masoretic text.

The various readings of the $Q^{e} r i$ are the most important and ancient portion of the Masora (§ 17). The composition of the Masora is not to be confounded with the task of supplying the text with the points. The latter is a work of earlier date and much more ability than the former.
3. The first attempts to illustrate the grammar of the language were made by the Jews, after the example of Arabian scholars, at the begimning of the tenth century. What was attempted by Saadia (ob. 942), and others in this department, is wholly lost. But there are still extant, in manuscript, the works of R. Jehuda Chayug (called also Abu Zakaria Yahya, about the year 1030), and R. Jona (Abulwalid Merwân ben Gannâch, about 1050), composed in the Arabic language. Aided by these labours, Abrahan ben Ezra (about 1150), and R. David Kimehi (1190-1200), acquired a classical reputation as grammarians of the language.

From these, as the earliest writers on the subject, are derived many of the methods of classification and of the technical terms which are still in part employed; e. g. the use of the forms and letters of the verb פעל (formerly employed as a paradigm) in designating the conjugations, and the different classes of irregular verbs; the roces memoriales, as
4. The father of Hebrew philology, among Christians, was the celebrated Joh. Reuchlin (ob. 1522), to whom Greek literature also is so much indebted. He, however, as well as the grammarians down to Joh. Buxtorf (ob. 1629), adhered almost entirely to Jewish tradition. After the middle of the seventeenth century the field of view gradually widened ; and the study of the kindred languages, through the labours, especially, of Alb. Schultens (ob. 1750), and N. W. Schröder (ob. 1798), led to important results in the science of Itebrew grammar.

To estimate correctly those works which have since appeared, and which are of permanent, scientific value, it is necessary to understand what is required of one who attempts to exhibit the grammar of an ancient language. This is, in general, 1) a correct observation and a systematic arrangement of all the phenomena of the language ; 2) the explanation of these phenomena, partly by comparing them with one another, and with analogous appearances in the kindred languages,

[^9]partly from the general analogy and philosophy of language. The first may be called the historicul, and the second the philosophical element in grammar.
[The most valuable grammatical works are, -
Gescnius's Lehrgebüule aler helr. Sprache. L.eipzig. 1817.
Lee's Lectures on Herbrew Grammar. London. 1827. Latest edition, 1844.
Ewald's Ausfuhrliches Lechrbuch ter heb. Spruche. Leiprig. 1844.
Nordhcimer's Critical Grammar of the Hebrew Language. 2 vols. New York. 1841. The best extant.

Hupfeld's Ausführliche hebr. Grammatik. Cassel. 1841. 1 Thl. I Abschnitt.]

## Sect. 4.

DIVISION AND ARRANGEMENT OF GRAMMAR.
The division and arrangement of Hebrew grammar are suggested by the three elementary parts of every language; viz., 1) articulate sounds expressed by letters, and their mion into syllables ; 2) words; and 3) sentences.

The first part (which treats of the elements) contains, accordingly, instruction respecting ,the sounds, and the representation of them by letters. It describes, therefore, the nature and relations of the sounds of the language, teaches how to express the written signs by sounds (orthoepy), and shows how to write agreeably to established usage (orthography). It treats, moreover, of sounds as connected into syllables and words, and exhibits the laws and conditions under which this comexion takes place.

In the sccond part (which treats of grammatical forms and inflexions) words are considered in their quality as parts of speech. It treats, 1) of the formation of words, or the rise of the several parts of speech from the roots, or from one another; 2) of inflexions, i. e. of the various forms which words assume, according to their relation to other words, and to the sentence.

The third part (syntax) shows, 1) how the various inflexions of the language serve to modify the original meaning• of words, and how other modifications, for which the language furnishes no forms, are expressed by periphrasis; 2) assigns the laws by which the parts of speech are united into sentences (syntax in the stricter sense).

## PART FIRST．

## THE ELEMENTS．

## CHAPTERI．－READING AND ORTHOGRAPHY．

Sect．5．－THE CONSONANTS，THEIR FORMS AND NAMES．
1．The Hebrew Alphabet consists of twenty－two consonants，some of which have also the power of vowels $(\$ 7,2)$ ．

| Form． |  | Reprosented by | $\substack{\text { Heblrew } \\ \text { name．}}$ | Sounded ns | Signifation of the names． | ${ }_{\substack{\text { Nommerical } \\ \text { value．}}}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | N | $\mathbf{N}^{\text {or }}{ }^{\prime}$ | ค令 | A＇－lĕph | Ox | 1 |
|  | $\beth$ | b，bli | בֵּית | Bēth | House | 2 |
|  | 2 | g，gh |  | $G_{\bar{\imath}-m e ̆ l}$ | Camel | 3 |
|  | 7 | d，dh | 隹 | $D$ â＇lĕth | Door | 4 |
|  | $\cdots$ | h | NT0 | $H_{\bar{e}}$ | Window | 5 |
|  | 1 | v | 11 | Vâv | Hook | 6 |
|  | i | z | ！ | $Z a^{\prime}-y{ }^{\text {a }}$ | Weapon | 7 |
|  | $\pi$ | ch | הֵית | Chētl | Fence | 8 |
|  | 0 | t | טית | Téth | Snake | 9 |
|  | ， | y | יוֹד | Yödh | Hand | 10 |
| 7 | ？ | k，kh | 习习习 | Käph | The hand bent | 20 |
|  | \％ | 1 | \％ | Lâ＇mĕdh | Ox－goad | 30 |
| $\square$ | 9 | m | מֶם | Mēm | Water | 40 |
| ， | コ | n | נין | Nīn | Fish | 50 |
|  | 0 | S | כָּ | Sä＇mĕkh | Prop | 60 |
|  | y | y or＂ | טֵַ | $A^{\prime}-y^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ | Eye | 70 |
| 6 | ๑ | $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{ph}$ | Nอ | Pē | Mouth | 80 |
| $\%$ | 3 | ts | צָּרֶ | $T \mathrm{~s} \hat{\text { a }}$－dhe＇${ }^{\text {c }}$ | Fish－hook | 90 |
|  | P | $q \dagger$ | קוֹ\％ | Qöph | Back of the head | 100 |
|  | 7 | r | רֵיִיט | Rēsh | Head | 200 |
|  | $\because$ | sh，s | לִִין | Shin | Tooth | 300 |
|  | $ת$ | t ，th | תָּ | Tâu | Cross | 400 |

＊For the sounds of the consonants and vowels in this talle，see $\S 6$ and note on $\S 8$ ．－Tr． $\dagger$ The Latin $q$ serves well for the Shemitish $P$（Greek кúntra），as it occupies its very place in the alphabet．
2. The letters now in nse, with which the manuseripts of the Old 'Testament are written (called the Assyrien or square character), are not of the original form. On the coins of the Maccabaan princes, and upon some signet stones, is found another character, doubtless in general use at an earlier period, which bears a strong resemblance to the Samaritan and Phenician letters $(\S 1,5)$. The square letter may also be traced back to the lhonician; but it agrees best with certain Aramaan inscriptions found in Egypt, and with the Palmyrene.*
3. The five characters which have a different form at the end of a word (final letters) $\dagger \boldsymbol{\dagger}, \square, \dot{\eta}, \eta, \eta$, terminate (with the exception of $\square$, ) in a perpendicular stroke directed downwards, whilst the common form has a horizontal connecting line, directed towards the following letter.
4. Hebrew is read from right to left. The division of a word at the end of a line is not allowed. To complete a line, certain letters (dilatabiles) are at times dilated. These are in our printed books the five following:-

Remark 1. The figures of the letters were originally slight and abridged representations of visible objects, the names of which began with the sounds of the several characters; e.g.7,1, the rude figure of a camel's neck, denotes properly a camel ( prop. eye, i.y, stands only for $y$, the initial letter of this word. In the Phœenician alphabet especially, the similarity of the figures to the object signified by the names is for the most part still apparent, and even in the square character it is still preserved in some letters; e. g. $ו, i, v,\urcorner, \zeta, i, u$.

The most probable signification of cach name is given in the alphabet. [For further information, see the initial articles under the several letters in Gesenius's Hebrew Lexicon.]

However certain it is, on the one hand, that the Shemites were the first to adopt this alphabet, it is yet highly probable, on the other, that the Egyptian writing (the so-called phonetic hieroglyphics) suggested the principle though not the figures; for these hieroglyphic characters indicate, likewise, chicfly the initial sound in the name of the object sketched; e. g. the hand, tot, indicates the letter $t$; the lion, laboi, the letter $l . \ddagger$
2. The order of the letters (the antiquity of which is clearly prored by the alphabetical poems in Ps. xxp., xxxir., xxxvii., cxix., Lam. i.-iv., Pr. xxxi. 10-31) certainly depended originally on a grammatical consideration of the sounds, as we may see from the occurrence in succession of the three softest labial, palatal, and dental sounds, viz., ב, , , 7, also of the three liquids, $\zeta, \mathfrak{y}, \mathcal{2}$, and other similar arrangements (see Lepsius, spracheergleichende Abhandlungen, Berlin, 1836. No. 1):

[^10]but other considerations and influences have doubtless also had some effect upon it, for it is certainly not a mere accident, that two letters representing a hand (Yodh and Kaph), also two exhibiting the head (Qoph and Resh), are put together, as is done moreover with several characters denoting objects which are connected ( Mcm and Num, Ayin and I'e).

Both the names and the order of the letters (with a slight alteration) passed over from the Phœenician into the Greek, in which the letters, from Alpha to Tau, correspond to the ancient alphabet. Just so are the old Italic and Roman alphabets, and all directly or indirectly proceeding from them, dependent upon the Phœnician.
3. The letters are used also for signs of number, as the Hebrews had no special arithmetical characters or ciphers. But this usage [exhibited in the table of the alphabet] does not occur in the Old Testament text; it is found first on coins of the Maccabees (middle of the 2nd cent. B. c.). It is now employed in the editions of the Bible for counting the chapters and verses. As in the numeral system of the Greeks, the units are denoted by the letters from $\mathfrak{N}$ to $\mathbf{L}$, the tens by י— $\mathbf{y}$, $100-400 \mathrm{by}$ - $\Omega$. The hundreds from $500-900$, are sometimes denoted by the five final letters, thus, 7500 , $600, \mathfrak{7} 00$, ๆ $800, \mathfrak{\gamma} 900$, and sometimes by $\Pi=400$, with the addition of the remaining hundreds, as p 500. In combining different numbers the greater is put first, as $\mathbf{N}$ 11, קכבא 121. Fifteen is marked by $1 ט=9+6$, and not by $n$, because with these the name of God int commences; from a similar consideration also iv is written for 16 instead of $r$. The thousands are denoted by the units with two dots above, as ※̈ 1000 .
4. Abbreciations of words are not found in the text of the Old Testament. On coins, however, they occur, and they are in common use by the later Jews. The sign of abbreviation is an oblique
 $\because$ for

Sect. 6.

## PRONUNCIATION AND DIVISION OF CONSONANTS.

1. It is of the greatest importance to understand the original sound of every consonant, since very many grammatical peculiarities and changes ( $\$ 18$, etc.) are regulated and explained by the pronunciation. Our knowledge of this is derived partly from the pronunciation of the kindred languages, particularly of the yet living Arabic, partly from observing the resemblance and interchange of letters in the Hebrew itself ( $\$ 19$ ), partly from the tradition of the Jews.*

The pronunciation of the Jews of the present day is not uniform. The Polish and German Jews imitate the Syriac, while the Spanish and l'ortuguese Jews, whom most Christian scholars (after the example of Reuchlin) follow, prefer the purer Arabic pronunciation.

The manner in which the Seventy have written Hebrew proper names in Greek letters, furnishes an older tradition of greater weight. Several, however, of the Hebrew sounds they were unable to represent for want of corresponding characters in the Greek language, e. g. y, ë, so that, to relieve

[^11]the difficulty, they had to resort to various expedients. This is likewise the case in the transcribing of Hebrew words with Latin characters, as Jerome sometimes gives them according to the pronunciation of the Jews of his time. On the pronunciation of the present Jews in the north of Africa, see Barges in the Journ. Asiat. 1848, Nov.
2. The following list embraces those consonants the pronunciation of which requires special attention, exhibiting in connexion those which bear any resemblance in sound to each other.

1. Among the gutturals $\boldsymbol{N}$ is the lightest, a scarcely audible breathing from the lungs, the spiritus lenis of the Greeks; similar to $\boldsymbol{a}$ but softer. Even before a vowel it is almost lost upon the ear (הָּג ajap), like the $h$ in the French habit, homme [or Eng. hour]. After a vowel it is often not heard at all, except in connexion with the preeeding rowel sound, with which it combines its own (Nకָ matsA, § 23, 1).
i before a vowel is exactly our $h$ (spiritus asper); it is also a guttural after a vowel at the end of a syllable (7פְ něh-pükh); but at the end of a word it often stands in the place of a vowel, so that its consonant breathing is not heard ( ${ }^{-}$
$\mathfrak{y}$ is related to $\mathbb{N}$; and is a sound peculiar to the organs of the Shemitic race. Its hardest
 where, like $\kappa$, a gentle breathing, as in 'עִ, 'H 'Hić; P.? Arabian, the first often strikes the ear like a soft guttural $r$, the second as a sort of rowel sound like $a$. It is properly as incorrect entirely to pass over $y$, as some do, in reading and transcribing words with our own letters, e. g. עֵלִ Eli, עֲקָּל. Amalek, as it is to read it simply like g. The best representation we could give of it in our letters would be $g h$ or ${ }^{r} g$, though its sound is sometimes softer, as $g n$ or $n g$ is decidedly false.
$\Pi$ is the firmest of the guttural sounds. It is a guttural ch, as uttered by the Swiss [and Welsh], resembling the Spanish $x$ and $j$. While the Hebrew was a living language, this letter had two grades of sound, being uttered feebly in some words and more strongly in others.*

7 also the Hebrews frequently pronounced with a hoarse guttural sound, not as a lingual made by the vibration of the tongue. Hence it is not merely to be reckoned among the liquids ( $l, m, n, r$ ), but, in several of its relations, it belongs also to the class of gutturals ( $\S 22,5)$.
2. In sibilant sounds the Hebrew language is rich, more so than the kindred dialects, especially the Aramæan, which adopts instead of them the flat, lingual sounds.
$\dot{*}$ and $\dot{\psi}$ were originally one letter $\dot{\psi}$ (pronounced without doubt like $s h$ ), and in unpointed Hebrew this is still the ease. But as this sound was in many words softer, approaching to a simple $s$, the grammarians distinguished this double pronunciation by the diacritic point into $\dot{v} / \boldsymbol{v}$ (which occurs most frequently), and ivs.
iv resembled D in pronunciation: it differed from this letter, however, and was probably uttered more strongly, being nearly related to $\dot{\sim}$. Hence oָ po to close up, and meanings, being independent roots, as also oָ to be foolish, and to be wise. At a later period this distinction was lost, and hence the Syrians employed only 0 for both, and the Arabians only

* In the Arabic language, the peculiarities of which have been carefully noted by the grammarians, the hard and soft sounds of $ע$ and $\Pi$ (as well as the different pronunciations of $\rceil, \nu, \zeta$ ), are indicated by diacritic points. Two letters are thus made from each; from $\boldsymbol{\nu}$ the softer $\mathcal{E}$ Ayin, and the harder $\dot{\mathcal{E}}$ Ghain; from $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ the softer $\subset$ Iha, ant the harder $\dot{\subset}$ Kha .
their c ．They also began to be interchanged even in the later Hebrew；$\quad$ ． Esr．iv．5；טִבְלוּת for folly，Eccles．i． 17.
；was like $d s$（hence in the Septuagint $\zeta$ ），as $>$ was $t s$ ．It is well represented by the French and English z．

3．$p$ and $ט$ differ essentially from $\Sigma$ and $\pi$ ．The former（as also $\wp$ ）are uttered with strong articulation，and with a compression of the organs of speech in the back part of the mouth．

3．The six consonants，
have a twofold pronunciation：＊1）a harder，more slender sound（tenuis），as $b, g$ ， $d, k, p, t$ ，and 2）a soft sound uttered with a gentle aspiration（aspirata）．The harder sound is the original．It is found at the beginning of words and syllables， when no vowel immediately precedes it，and is indicated by a point in the
 occurs after a vowel immediately preceding，and is denoted in manuscripts by Raphe（ $\$ 14,2$ ），but in the printed text it is known by the absence of the Daghesh． In some of these letters（especially $\boldsymbol{d}$ ）the difference is less perceptible to our ear． The modern Greeks aspirate distinetly $\beta, \gamma, \delta$ ，and the Danes $d$ at the end of a word．The Greeks have two characters for the two sounds of the other letters of this class，as $\searrow \kappa, \beth \chi \pi, \beth \phi, \AA \tau, ภ \theta$ ．

For the particulars as to when the one or the other pronunciation is applicable，see $\S 21$ ．The


4．After what has been said，the usual division of the consonants，according to the organs of speech employed in uttering them，will be more intelligible and useful．The common division is as follows：－

b）Palatals，P，Ј，ג，＂
c）Linguals，ט，$\Pi, 7$ ，with $\rfloor, \zeta$


d）Dentals or sibilants，З，ש，D，i
e）Labials，ワ，ב，ロ，
The letter 7 partakes of the character of both the first and third classes．
The liquids also $7,3, \pm, \zeta$ ，which have many peculiarities in common，are to be recrarded as a separate class．

[^12]In the Hubrew, as well as in all the Shemitic dialects, the firmer and stronger pronunciation, which characterised the earlier periods of the language, gradually gave way to softer and feebler sounds. In this way many nice distinctions of the carlier pronunciation were neglected and lost.
 2) in the pronunciation of the same letter; thus in Syriac $y$ has always a feeble sound, while the Galileans uttered it, as well as $\pi$, like $\mathbb{N}$; in Athiopic $\because$ has the sound of $s, \pi$ that of $h$.

Sect. 7.
on the yowels in general, vowel letters, and vowel signs.

1. That the scale of five vowels, $a, e, i, o, u$, proceeds from the three primary vowel sounds, $A, I, U$, is even more distinctly scen in the Hebrew and the rest of the Shemitic tongues than in other languages. $E$ and $O$ are derived from a blending together of the purer vowels, viz., $I$ and $U$ with a preceding short $A$, and are properly diphthongs contracted, $\hat{e}$ arising from $a i, \hat{o}$ from $a u$, according to the following scheme*:-


The more ancient Arabic has not the rowels $\hat{e}$ and $\delta$, and always uses for them the diphthongs $a i$ and $a u$; e. g. $i^{\prime}$ בֵ , Arabic buin, Arab. yaum. It is only in the modern popular language that these diphthongs are contracted into one sound. The close relation of those sound is also sufficiently familiar from Greek and Latin, (e. g. Kaî $\alpha \rho$, Cæsar; $\theta \alpha \hat{\imath} \mu a$, Ion. $\theta \hat{\omega} \mu a$ ), from the French pronunciation of $a i$ and $a u$, from the Germanic languages (Goth. auso, auris, Old High-Ger. ora, ear.; Goth. snaivs, Old High-Ger. snêo, Schnee [snow]), and even from the modern German vulgar dialect (Oge for Auge, Goth. augб [eye]; Steen for Stein, Goth. Stains [stone; comp. in Eng. $a i$ in said, and a $u$ in naught]).

In the present Arabic of the Beduins, the use of the rowels does not extend itself in the pronunciation so much beyond the three primary sounds, $a, i$, and $u$, as in the Arabic spoken in Syria and Egypt (sce Wallin alluded to ante, p. 5, note), and the same is reported of the African Jews by Barges in the Journ. Asiat., 1840, Nor.
2. With this is comnected the manner of indicating the rowel sounds in writing. As only three principal vowel sounds were distinguished, no others were designated in writing; and even these were represented not by appropriate signs, but by certain consonants employed for this purpose, whose feeble consonant powers,

[^13]according to their nature, approximate so very much to the vowel sounds to be expressed. Thus 1 (like the Lat. $V$ ) represented $U$ and also $O$; ' (like the Lat. $J$ ) represented $I$ and $E$. The designation of $A$, the purest of all the vowels, and of most frequent occurrence, was regularly omitted,* except at the end of a word, where long $a$ was represented by $\boldsymbol{\pi}$, and sometimes by $\boldsymbol{N} . \dagger$ These two letters stood also for long $e$ and $o$ final.
[The four letters mentioned (forming the mnemonic "אֶוֶ clivi) are commonly called quiescent or feeble letters.]

Even those two vowel letters ( 1 and ') were used but sparingly, being employed only when the sounds which they represent were long, and not always then $(\S 8,4) . \ddagger$ Everything else relating to the tone and quantity of the vowel sounds, whether a consonant should be pronounced with or without a vowel, and even whether 1 and 'were to be regarded as vowels or consonants, the reader was to decide for himself.

> Thus, for example, קטל might be read qūtal, quatēl, qūtōl, qetōl, q6tēl, qittēl, qattēl, quttal; dübhär (a word), dübhĕr (pestilence), dilber (he has spoken), dabbēr (to speak), döbhèr (speaking), dubbar (it has been spoken); might be müčěth (death), or müth, moth (to die); בות might be read bīn, bên, büyin.

How imperfect and indefinite such a mode of writing was, is easily seen; yet during the whole period in which the Hebrew was a spoken language, no other signs for vowels were employed. Reading was therefore a harder task than it is with our more adequate modes of writing, and much had to be supplied by the reader's knowledge of the living mother tongue.
3. But when the Hebrew ceased to be a spoken language, and the danger of losing the correct pronunciation, as well as the perplexity arising from this indefinite mode of writing, continually increased, the vowel signs or points were invented, which minutely determined what had previously been left uncertain. Of the date of this invention we have no historical account; but a comparison of

[^14]listorical facts warrants the conclusion，that the present vowel system was not completed till the seventh century of the Christian era．It was the work of Jewish scholars，well skilled in the language，who，it is highly probable，copied the example of the Syrian and perhaps also of the Arabian grammarians．

Sce Gesch．d．hebr．Spr．S． 182 ff．and Hupfeld in den theolog．Studien und Kritiken，1830，No．3， where it is shown that the Talmud and Jerome make no mention of rowel points．
4．This vowel system has，probably，for its basis the pronunciation of the Jews of Palestine ；and its consistency，as well as the analogy of the kindred languages， furnishes strong proof of its correctness，at least as a whole．We may，however， assume，that it exhibits not so much the pronunciation of common life as the graver style in reading the sacred books，which was sanctioned by tradition．Its authors have laboured to represent by signs the minute gradations of the vowel sounds， carefully marking even half vowels and helping sounds（ $§ 10$ ），spontaneously adopted in all languages，yet seldom expressed in writing．To the same labours we owe the different marks by which the sound of the consonants themselves is modified（ $\S \S 11-14$ ），and the accents（ $\$ \S 15,16$ ）．

The Arabs have a much more simple vowel system．They have only three vowel signs，according to the three primary vowel sounds．The Syriac punctuation is likewise based upon a less com－ plicated system．It is possible that the Hebrew also had at an earlier period a more simple vowel system，bat no actual traces of it are found，

Sect． 8.

## THE VOWEL SIGNS．＊

1．Of full vowels，besides which there are also certain half vowels（ $\S 10,1,2$ ）， grammarians have generally reckoned ten，and divided them into five long and five short．As this division is simple and convenient for the learner，it is here pre－ sented $\dagger$ ：

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Long Vowels: } \\
& \text { - Qámĕts, } \bar{a}, \square_{\div}^{\top} y \bar{a} m \text {. } \\
& \text { - Tsērè, è, こư shēm. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - Shürrĕq, } \bar{u}, \text { הiּ mūth. } \\
& \text { Short Vowels. } \\
& \text { - Păthăch, ă, } \cap \text { ב彐 băth. } \\
& \text { - Sĕghōll, é, `ֶֶ běn. } \\
& \text { - Chĭréq short, ̌, jo min. }
\end{aligned}
$$

[^15]A more philosophic and useful exhibition of the vowels, according to the three primary vowel sounds ( $\$ 7,1,2$ ), is the following :-

## First Class. For the A sound.

1) $\left.\div Q \bar{a}^{\prime} m e ̆ t s, ~ \bar{a}, \hat{a},\right\urcorner_{\tau} y \bar{a} d h$ (hand), $\quad q$ âm (he arose*).


 French $\grave{e}$ in mère [which is like our $e$ in there].

Second Class. For the I and E sound.


Third Class. For the U and O sound.
(1) : Shǘrĕq, $\bar{u}$, מito mūth (to die).
 No. 4), instead of Shureq, mà mithī (my dying).


5) also - , obtuse $\breve{e}$, so far as it springs from $u$ or $o$, as in - צֶe éth (from תix).

The names of the rowels are nearly all taken from the form and action of the month in uttering

 the mouth). This last meaning belongs also to ${ }^{\prime} p_{T}$; and the reason, why long $a$ and short $o$ ( ָקמֶץ חָטוּח Qamets correptum) have the same sign and name, seems to be that the inventors of the vowel signs pronounced the long a rather obscurely, and somewhat like $o$, as it then passed over to a perfect $o$ with the present German and Polish Jews. (Comp. the Syriac $a$ with the Maronite $=\sigma$, the Swedish $\stackrel{\circ}{a}$, and the already carly change of $a$ into $\sigma$ even in the Hebrew, § $9,10,2) \neq$ The distinction between them is shown in §9. But Sryhol (bise cluster of grapes) applears to bo named after its form ; so too some call Qibbuts

* The equivalents for the Hebrew vowels are marked here variously, viz., $\mathrm{A}, \hat{\mathrm{c}}$, $\hat{o}$ for the essentially long, $\overline{\mathrm{a}}, \overline{\mathrm{c}}, \overline{\mathrm{c}}$ for the merely tone-long, $\mathfrak{a}, \check{c}$, $\bar{u}$ for the short vowels. For the rest, the distinction of $\bar{i}$ and $\bar{Y}, \bar{u}$ and $\bar{u}$ is sufticient. (See § 9.)
$\dagger$ The Jewish grammarians call Seghol also "small Pathach."
$\ddagger$ It has been conjectured that the signs for these vowels were originally different ( $n s-\overline{6},+0$ ) and heeame identical only through carelessness in writing; but sueh a difference cannot be proved, for these two marks are quite identieal, the former $(-)$ being only the original, and the second ( $r$ ) the modified form.

The names were, moreover, so formed that the sound of each vowel was heard in the first syllable; and in conformity to this, some write Säyhol, Qomets-chatuph, Qübbuts.
2. As appears from the examples given above, the vowel sign is regularly put under the consonant after which it is to be pronounced, $\urcorner \uparrow r \bar{a}, ~\urcorner ~ r \bar{a}, ~\urcorner ~ r e \bar{e}, ~\urcorner ~ r u, ~ e t c . ~$ There is an exception to this rule in Pathach, when it stands under a guttural at the end of it word (Pathach furtive, see $\S 22,2, b$ ), for it is then spoken before the consonant, as $\begin{gathered}\text { רוּהו } \\ \text { ruch } \\ \text { a } \\ \text { (wind, spirit). We must also except Cholem (without }\end{gathered}$ Vav), which is put to the left over the letter, $7 \times \overline{0}$. ${ }^{*}$

When Cholem (without Vav) and the diacritic point over $\cup(\dot{\cup}, \dot{v})$ come together, one dot serves
 under it, is shō, as

The figure $\mathfrak{i}$ is sometimes sounded ov, the $\boldsymbol{l}$ being a consonant with Cholem before it, as | ifl |
| ---: | :--- |$\overline{0}-v e$

 very exact impressions a distinction is made thus: $\mathfrak{i} o v, i$ vo, and $\mathfrak{i} \bar{o}$.
3. The vowels of the first class [for the $A$ sound] are, with the exception of $\bar{\nabla}$ in the middle, and of $\boldsymbol{T}_{\boldsymbol{T}}, \mathbb{N}_{\tau}$ at the end of a word, indicated only by vowel signs ( $\S 7,2$ ); but in the two other classes [for the $I$ and $E$ sound and for the $U$ and $O$ sound] the long vowels are mostly expressed by vowel letters, the sound of which is determined by the signs standing before or within them. Thus,-
${ }^{\bullet}$ may be determined by Chireq (`-), Tsere ('-), Seghol (`-).
1 by Shureq ( ${ }^{(1)}$ ) and Cholem (i) $\dagger$
In Arabic the long $a$ is regularly indicated by the vowel letter Aleph ( $(\stackrel{-}{\tau}$ ) written in the text, so that in it three vowel letters answer to the threc vowel classes. In Hebrew the relation is somewhat different ( $\S 9,1$, and $\S 23,4$, Rem. 1).
4. When, in the second and third classes, the long vowel is expressed without a

[^16]vowel letter, it is called scriptio defectiva, when with a vowel letter, scriptio plena. Thus קip and are written fully, קוק and defectively.

The choice of the full or the defective mode of writing is not always arbitrary, as there are certain cases in which only the one or the other is admissible. Thus, the full form is necessary at the end of a word, e. g. "מּלֶי , but the defective is most usual when the vowel is preceded by the analogous vowel


But in other cases, much depended on the option of the transcribers, so that the same word is
 (comp. § 25, 1). It may be observed, however,
a) That the defective writing is used chiefly, though not constantly, when the word has increased at the end, and the rowel of the penultima has lost somewhat of its stress in consequence of the accent or tone of the word being moved forward [see § 29, 2], as p ; וְבֻלִ, וְבוּל
b) That in the later books of the Old Testament the full form, in the earlier the defective, is more usual.*
5. In the kindred dialects, when a vowel letter has before it a rowel sign that is not kindred or homogeneous, a diphthong is formed, e. g. $1-\mathrm{au}, 1-\mathrm{eu},{ }^{\bullet}-,{ }^{\bullet}-\mathrm{ai}$. But in Hebrew, according to the pronmeiation handed down by the Jews, 1 and ’ retain here their consonant sound, so that we get $a v, c r, a y, \dagger$ e. g. $\boldsymbol{i}_{\tau}$ vüu (nail),
 ${ }_{\tau}-$, namely, av, as

The LXX. give generally, in these cases, an actual diphthong, as in the Arabic, and this must be considered as an earlier mode of pronunciation; the modern Jewish pronunciation is, on the other hand, similar to the modern Greek, in which av̉, cu sound like ar, er. In the manuscripts Jodh and Vav are, in this case, even marked with Mappiq (\$ 14, 1). The Italian Jews sound these syllables more like diphthongs, e. g. chair, gèu, and so also buiit ( $n \div 3)$.

## Sест. 9.

## CHARACTER AND VALUE OF THE SEvERAL VOWELS.

Numerous as these signs appear, they are yet insufficient for completely representing the various modifications of the rowel sounds in respect to length and shortness, sharpness and extension. It may be observed further, that the indication of the sound by these signs camnot be called always perfectly appropriate. We therefore give here, for the better understanding of this matter, a short commentary

[^17]on the character and value of the several vowels，especially in respect to length and shortness；but at the same time their changeableness（ $\$ \S 25,27$ ）will be noticed in passing．

## I．First Class．A sound．

1．Qamets，though everywhere long $a$ ，is yet in its nature of two kinds：
1）The essentially long and unchangeable $\hat{a}(\$ 25)$ ，for which the Arabic has $\mathbf{N ゙ -}$ ， as Exp．2）The prolonged $\bar{a}$ of prosody（see $\S 26,3$ ），both in the tone－syllable and close before or after it．This sound invariably proceeds from the original short $a$ ，${ }^{*}$ and is found in an open syllable（i．e．one ending witl a vowel，sec § 26,3 ）， e．g． $\boldsymbol{T}_{?}$ ，，קָּז
 this has the tone，$\dagger$ ，עוֹלָם，but in the open，it is especially frequent before the
 or lessened，this vowel becomes，in the former case，short $a$（Pathach），and in the


Under the final letter of a word，Qamets may stand alone（


2．Pathach，or the shorter $a$ ，stands properly only in a closed syllable with and
 open syllable（ Otherwise such an $a$ in an open syllable is changed into $\bar{a}(-)$ ，comp．above，Nos．1，2．

On the rare union of Pathach with ミ（（－），see § 23，2：on $a$ as a helping sound（Pathach furtive），see $\S 22,2, b$ ．and $\S 28,4$ ．
3．Seghol（ $\ddot{a}, \breve{e}$ ）belongs chiefly to the second class of vowels，but now and then， according to its origin，to the first or the third class．It belongs to the first，when it is a modification of $a$（like German Gast，Güste［comp．Celtic bardh，pl．beirdh］）， e．g．אָּ from Nַּ Although an obtuse sound，it can stand in the tone－syllable， as in the first syllable of $q$ qüren，and even in the gravest tone－syllable at the end of a clause or sentence（in paiuse，§ 29，4）．

## II．Second Class．I and E．sound．

4．The long $\bar{\imath}$ is most commonly expressed by the letter＇（a fully written Chireq＇－）；but even when this is not the case，it makes no essential difference，


[^18]Whether a defectively written Chireq is long, may be best known from the grammatical origin and character of the form, but often also from the character of the syllable (§26), or from the position of Methegh (§16,2) at its side, as in $\mathfrak{x}$.
5. The short Chireq (always written without ') is especially frequent in sharpened syllables ( (?

 בּיִּתִ (§ 28, 4).

The Jewish and the older grammarians denominate every fully written Chireq, Chireq magnum, and every defectively written one, Chireq parvum. In respect to the sound, this is a wrong distinction.
6. The longest $\hat{\ell}$, Tsere, with Yodh ('-), is a contracted sound of the diphthong $a i=(\S 7,1)$, which, in the Arabic and Syriac, is employed instead of the former, as הֵיכָּל (palace), in Arab. and Syr. haikal. It is therefore a very long and an unchangeable vowel, longer even than ' - , since it approaches the quantity of a
 then it retains the same value.

At the end of a word $\because$ and $\urcorner$ must be written fully: most rare is the form Rem. 4).
7. The Tsere without Yodh is the long $\bar{e}$ of a secondary order, and stands only in and close by the tone-syllable, like the Qamets above in No. 1, 2. Like that, it stands in either an open or a closed syllable; the former in the tone-syllable or
 dumb).
8. The Seghol, so far as it belongs to the second class, is most generally a short obtuse $e$ sound obtained by shortening the ( $二$ ), as from also out of the shortest $e$ (vocal She ${ }^{e}$ va, $\S 10,1$ ), when this is made prominent

 Yodh ( $\stackrel{\square}{\eta}$ ) is a long but yet obtuse $\ddot{a}$ ( $\dot{b}$ of the French) formed out of ai, גְּלָּ gelena, and hence belongs rather to the first class ( $\$ 8,1, c)$.

See more on the rise of Seghol out of other vowels in § 27, Rem. 1, 2, 4.

[^19]
## III. Therd Class. U and O sound.

9. In the third class we find quite the same relation as in the second. In the $u$ sound we have: 1) the long $\bar{u}$, whether a) fully written: Shureq (answering to the '- of the second class), e. g. וְבוּ (dwelling), or b) defectively written withont Vav - (analogous to the long - of the second class), Qibbuts; viz., that which stands for Shureq, and might more properly be called defective Shureq ('יֶמתּן, i: being in fact a long vowel like Shereq, and only an orthographic shortening for the same.
2) The short $\breve{u}$, the proper Qibluts (analogous to the short Chireq), in an
 קבּהּה (bedchamber).

For the latter the LXX. put $o$, e. g. true pronunciation, though they also express Chireq by $\epsilon$. Equally incorrect was the former custom of giving to both sorts of Qibluts the sound $i u$.
 Rem. 1).
10. The $O$ sound stands in the same relation to $U$, as $E$ to $I$ in the second class. It has four gradations: 1) the longest $\hat{o}$, obtained from the diphthong au $(\S 7,1)$, and mostly written in full $\mathfrak{i}$ (Cholem plenum), as עוֹלָה (whip), Arabic saut, עוֹטוֹ (evil) from שַוְלָה ; sometimes it is written defectively, as (thy bullock), from نin;
2) The long $\hat{o}$, which has sprung from an original $\hat{a}$ [comp. Germ. alt $=$ Eng. old], usually written fully in a tone-syllable and defectively in a toneless one, as
 and Chald. âlam.
3) The tone-long $\bar{o}$, which is lengthened from an original short $o$ or $u$ by the

 yiqtelu). In this case the Cholem is fully written only by way of exception.
4) The Qamets-chatuph ( - ), always short and in the same relation to Cholem as the Seghol of the second class to the Tsere, $-\zeta$ כָּ $k \underset{o l}{ }$, tinction between this and Qamets, see post, in this section.
11. The Seghol belongs here also, so far as it arises out of $u$ or 0 (No. 3), e. g.


On the half vowels, see the next section.
12. In the following table we give a scale of the vowel sounds in each of the three classes, with respect to their quantity, from the greatest length to the utmost
shortness. The table does not indeed suffice to exhibit all vowel transitions which occur in the language, but yet it furnishes a view of those in more frequent use:-

First Class. A. $\mid$ Second Class. I and E.
$\checkmark$ longest $\hat{a}$ (Arabic $\aleph_{\tau}$ ).
$\bar{\tau}$ tone-lengthened $\bar{a}$ (from short $a$ or $\overline{\#}$ ) in and by the tonesyllable.
$=$ short $a$.
$\bar{\eta}$ obtuse $\ddot{a}$.
Greatest shortening to $\bar{\sigma}_{i}^{a}$ or $\bar{\square}-$ in an open, and to $-\varepsilon$ in a closed syllable.
--. $\hat{e}$ diphthongal (from ai).
$\stackrel{\ddots}{\imath}$ (from $a i$ ).
$\rightarrow$ or $-\operatorname{long}_{g} \bar{i}$.
$\bar{\sim}$ tone-lengthened $\bar{e}$ (from $\varepsilon$ or $\bar{\eta}$ obtuse $e$ ) in and immediately before the tone-syllable.

- short \%.
$\bar{*}$ obtuse $e$.
Greatest shortening to $\ddot{z}^{a}$ or $\sigma^{-e}$ in an open syllable, besides $\dot{\circ}$ in an open syllable, besides
the $-₹$ or $\overline{\%}$ in the closed.

Third Class. U and $O$.
i 6 diphthongal (from $a u$ ).
$i$ or $-\sigma$ changed from $\hat{a}$.
tor - long ü.

- tone-lengthened ó (from $\delta$ or $\bar{y}$ ) in the tone-syllable.
- short $\check{u}$, specially in a sharpened syllable.
${ }_{\tau}{ }^{-}$short 8 .
$\bar{\eta}$ obtuse $c$.
Greatest shortening to $-{ }_{\mathrm{r}}^{0} \mathrm{o}$ or $\overline{-}^{\circ}$ in an open syllable, besides the short - or $-\check{\sim}$ in the closed.

ON TIIE DISTINCTION OF QAMETS AND QAMETS-CHATUPII.*
As an instance of incongruity in the vowel system, we may notice the fact, that the long $\bar{a}$ (Qamets) and the short $\check{o}$ (Qamets-chatuph) are both represented by the
 that surest of guides, viz., the grammatical derivation of the words he has to read, may, in order to distinguish between these two vowels, attend to the following two rules:-

1. The sign ( $r$ ) is of in a closed syllable which has not the tone [or accent]; for such a syllable camnot have a long vowel $(\S 26,5)$. The examples are various:
 zőkh-ra; with a Methegh, on the contrary, the (r) is $\tilde{u}$, and closes the syllable, and then the

b) When Daghesh forte follows, as bottcêkhém (notwithstanding the Methegh, which stands by the vowel in the ante-penultima).
c) When Maqqeph follows (§ 16, 1), as
d) When the unaccented closed syllable is final, as arpron rayyáqơm (and he stood up).—There are some cases where $a$ in the final syllable loses its tone by $M$ aqqeph ( $\$ 16,1$ ) and yet remains
 but not always.

In cases like הָּ ing to § 26,6 .

* This portion must, in order to he fully understool, be studied in connexion with what is snid on the syllables in $\S 26$, and on Methegh in $\S 16,2$. [In the original it is all printed in small tyre, but its importance justifies the change we have male].
$\dagger$ For the cause of this, see p. 21.

2. The sign $(r)$ as short $\check{b}$ in an open syllable is far less frequent, and belongs to the exceptions in $\S 26,3$. It occurs: a) when C'hateph-Qamets follows, as
 pü-ll $k \cdot h a \dagger$ (thy deed); c) in two anomalous words, where it stands merely for
 and

In these cases ( $r$ ) is followed by Methegh, although it is $\delta$, since Methegh always stands in an open second syllable before the tone. The exceptions that occur can be determined only by the



Sect. 10.

## THE HALF VOWELS AND THE SYLLABLE-DIVIDER (SHVA).

1. Besides the full vowels, chiefly treated in $\S 9$, the Hebrew has also a series of very slight vowel sounds, which may be called half vowels. $\ddagger$ They are to be regarded in general as extreme shortenings, perhaps mere traces, of fuller and more distinct vowel sounds in an carlier period of the language.

To them belongs, first, the sign - , which indicates the shortest, slightest, and most indistinct half vowel, something like an obscure half $\check{e}$. It is called $S h^{e} r a, \S$ and also simple Sheva, to distinguish it from the composite (see post, No. 2), and vocal Sheva (Sheva mobile), to distinguish it from the silent (Sheva quiescens), which is merely a divider of syllables (see post, No. 3). This last can occur only under a consonant closing the syllable, and is thus distinguished from the vocal Sheva, whose place is under a consonant beginning the syllable, whether $a$ ) at the beginning of the word, as bop qetol, memalle $\overline{\text { a }}$, or $b$ ) in the middle of the word, as

 Judges ix. 2 (where the interrogative makes a syllable by itself), מַלְ ma-l $k h k \hat{e}$. In the last examples the $S^{\circ}{ }^{e}$ va sound is specially slight, in consequence of the very short syllable preceding.

[^20]The sound $\check{e}$ may be regarded as representing rocal Sheva, although it is certain that it often accorded in sound with other vowels. The LXX. express it by $\epsilon$, even $\eta$, כְּרוּבִים Xeporßíp, הָ
 Na日avin.* A similar account of the pronunciation of She ${ }^{e} v a$ is given also by the Jewish grammarians of the middle ages. $\dagger$

How the Sheva sound springs from the slight or hasty utterance of a stronger vowel, we may see in שְּרָכָ (for which also occurs, see No. 2, Rem.) from barakha, as this word also sounds in Arabic. This language has still regularly for vocal Shera an ordinary short vowel.

The vocal Sheva is too weak to stand in a closed syllable; but yet it can with the consonant before it form a hasty open syllable, as appears from the use of Methegh (see §16, 2), and also

2. With the simple vocal Sheva is connected the so-called composite Shera or Cluateph (rapid), i. e. a Sheva attended by a short vowel to indicate that we should sound it as a half $\check{a}, \check{e}$, or $\check{o}$. We have, answering to the three principal vowel sounds ( $\S 7,1$ ), the following three:
(:-) Chateph-Pathach, as in in chichor (ass).
(:") Chateph-Seghol, as in san ${ }^{\text {e }}$ mor (to say).
(:) Chateph-Qamets, as in
The Chatephs, at least the two former, stand chiefly under the four gutturals ( $\$ 22,3$ ), the utterance of which naturally causes the annexed half rowel to be more distinctly sounded.

Rem. Only ( $\because$ : and ( 5 ) occur under letters which are not gutturals.
The Chateph-Pathach is thus found instead of simple vocal Shera, but without any fixed law, especially $a$ ) under a doubled letter, since the doubling causes a more distinct utterance of the vocal Sheva, $\ddagger$ sometimes also where the sign of doubling has fallen away, "עַ for ' y ?
 but עeut. v. 24, comp. Gen. xxvii. 26, 38.
The Chateph-Qamets is less connected with the gutturals than the first two, and stands frequently for simple vocal Sheva when an $O$ sound was originally in the syllable, and requires to be partly


 composite Sheva is dependent on the following guttural and the preceding $U$ sound.
3. The sign of the simple Sleva (-) serves also as a mere syllable-divider, without expressing any sound, and therefore called in this case silent Shera (Shira

[^21]$\ddagger$ As in
quiescens), answering to the Mrabic S'ukinn. It stands in the midst of a word under every consonant that closes a syllable; at the end of words, on the other hand, it is omitted, except in final 7, e. g. מֶל (king), and in the less frequent case where a word ends with two consonants, as in נִרְ (nard), תֵּ (thou, fem.), קָטַלְ (thou hast killed),

Yet in the last examples $S l^{e} v a$ under the last letter might rather pass for vocal, since it is pretty
 from $ה$, from the Indian, this is less clear.


## Sect. 11.

## SIGNS Which affect the reading of consonants.

In intimate connexion with the vowel points stand the reading-signs, which were probably adopted at the same time. Besides the diacritic point of $\dot{\psi}$ and $\dot{\psi}$ (p. 16), a point is used in a letter, in order to show that it has a stronger sound, or is even doubled; and, on the contrary, a small horizontal stroke over a letter, as a sign that it has not the strong sound. The use of the point in the letter is threefold: a) as Daghesh forte or sign of doubling ; b) as Daghesh lene or sign of the hard (not aspirated) sound ; c) as Mappiq, a sign that the vowel letter ( $\$ 7,2$ ), especially the $i$ at the end of a word, has the sound of a consonant. The stroke over a letter, Raphe, has a contrary effect, and is scarcely ever used in the printed Hebrew copies.

Sect. 12.

## OF DAGHESH IN GENERAL; AND DAGHESH FORTE IN PARTICULAR.

1. Daghesh is a point written in the bosom $\dagger$ of a consonant, and is employed for two purposes; a) to indicate the doubling of the letter (Daghesh forte), e. g. hop qit-tel ; b) the hardening of the aspirates, i. e. the removal of the aspiration (Daghesh lene.)

The root רגֶ, from which is derived, in Syriac signifies to thrust through, to bore through (with a sharp iron). Hence the word Daghesh is commonly supposed to mean, with reference to its figure merely, a prick, a point. But the names of all similar signs are expressive of their gram-

[^22]matical power, and in this case, the name of the sign refers both to its figure and its use. In grammatical language $\mathfrak{ש}$ means, 1) acuere literam, to sharpen the letter by doubling it ; 2) to harden the letter by taking away its aspiration. Accordingly of sharpening or hardening (like Mappiq, ${ }^{2}$ טַ proferens, i. e. signum prolationis), and it was expressed in writing by a mere prick of the stilus (punctum). (In a manner somewhat analogous, letters and words are represented, in the criticism of a text, as expunged (ex-puncta) by a point or pointed instrument (obeliscus) affixed to them). The opposite of Daghesh is $\begin{gathered}\text { शֶר } \\ \text { pof } \\ \text { soft (§ 14, 2). }\end{gathered}$ That דגם שי in grammatical language, is applied to a harl pronunciation of various kinds appears from § 22,4, Rem. 1.
2. Its use as Daghesh forte, i. c. for doubling a letter, is of chief importance (compare the Sicilicus of the ancient Latins, e. g. Luculus for Lucullus, and in German the stroke over $\bar{m}$ and $\bar{n})$. It is wanting in the unpointed text, like the vowel and other signs.

For further particulars respecting its uses and varieties, see $\S 20$.

Sect. 13.

## DAGHESH LENE.

1. Daghesh lene, the sign of hardening, belongs only to the aspirates (literce
 original slender or pure sounds (literce tenues), e. g. صֶּ mâlēkh, but malk ;

2. Daghesh lene, as is shown in $\S 21$, stands only at the beginning of words and syllables. It is thus easily distinguished from Daghesh forte, since in these cases the doubling of a letter is impossible. Thus the Daghesh is forte in 'app

3. Daghesh forte in an aspirate not only doubles it, but takes away its aspiration, thus serving at once for both forte and lene, as appi ; תiּm rak-koth. (Compare in German stechen and stecken, wachen and wecken.)

This is accounted for by the difficulty of doubling an aspirated letter in pronunciation. In confirmation of this rule we may refer to certain Oriental words, which, in the earliest times, passed over into the Greek language, as Nכָּ

The doubling of a letter does not occur in Syriac, at least in the Western dialects. Where it would be required, however, according to etymology and analogy, the aspiration at least is removed: thus Pפָּ in Syriac is read apcq, for appeq.

## Sect. 14.

## MAPPIQ AND RAPHE.

1. Mappiq, like Daghesh, to which it is analogous, is a point in a letter. It belongs only to the vowel-letters 1 , ’, and $\mathbb{N}, \boldsymbol{i}$ (literce quiescibiles), and shows that they are to be sounded with their full consonant power, instead of serving as vowels. It is at present used only in final $n$, for in the body of a word this letter always has a consonant force, e. g. ga-blah (the $h$ having its full
 earth), which ends with a vowel.

Without doubt such a $n$ was uttered with stronger aspiration, like the Arabic $H e$ at the end of the syllable, or like $h$ in the German Schuh, which in common life is pronounced Schuch. The use of it in and under $\mathfrak{N}, \boldsymbol{\jmath}$, , to mark them as consonants, is confined to manuscripts, e. g. !ì (góy), ${ }^{1 p}(q \bar{u} v)$.

The name $\begin{gathered}\text { pַפְּ } \\ \text { signifies } \\ \text { producens, and indicates that the sound of the letter should be clearly }\end{gathered}$ expressed. The same sign was selected for this and for Daghesh, because the design was analogous, viz., to indicate the strong sound of the letter. Hence also Raphe is the opposite of both.
2. Raphe (רֶָּ i. e. soft) written over the letter, is the opposite of both Daghesh and Mappiq, especially of Daghesh lene. In exact manuscripts an aspirate has gencrally either Daghesh lene or Raphe, e. g. מֶּלֶך mülekh, printed editions of the Bible it is used only when the absence of Daghesh or
 v. 28, (where Daghesh lene is absent), Mappiq in Job xxxi. 22.

## Sect. 15.

## THE ACCENTS.

1. The design of the accents in general is, to show the rhythmical members of the verses in the Old Testament text. But as such the use is two-fold, according to which they are chiefly to be noticed in the grammar, viz., a) to show the logical relation of each word to the whole sentence; $b$ ) to mark the tone-syllable to each word. In respect to the former, they serve as signs of interpunction; in respect to the latter, as signs of the tone or accent.

By the Jews, moreover, they are regarded as signs of cantillation, intimating the elevation and depression of the tone, and are used as such in the recitation of the Scriptures in the synagogues. The use made of them in this way is also connected with the general rhythmical design.
2. As a sign for marking the tone of a single word, the accent, whatever its rhythmical value may be besides, stands regularly (comp. Rem. 2) with the syllable which has the chief tone in the word. In most words the tone is on the last syllable, less frequently on the penultima. In the first case, the word is called

 syllable from the end (antepenultima) the chief tone never stands; but we often find there a secondary one or by-tone, which is indicated by the Methegh (§ 16, 2).
3. The use of the accents as signs of interpunction is somewhat complicated, since they serve not merely to separate the members of a sentence, like our period, colon, and comma, but also as marks of comexion. Hence they form two classes, Distinctives (Domini) and Conjunctives (Servi). Some are, moreover, peculiar to the poctical books* (Job, Psalins, and Proverbs), which have a stricter rhythm.

The following is a list of them according to their value as signs of interpunction:

## A. Distinctives (Domini).

I. Greatest Distinctives (Imperatores), which may be compared with our period and colon. 1. ( - ) Sillüq (end), only at the end of the verse, and always united with (:) Söph-päsüq, which separates each verse, e. g. : (respiratio), generally in the middle of the verse, dividing it in two halves; but in the three books, Job, Psalns, and Proverbs, it is lighter than Mèrkī̄-Mühpühk (No. 3), and then divides the second half of the verse. 3. (, ־') Mérkī̄ with Müllpäklh,* in Job, Psalms, and Proverbs, mostly principal dividers in the middle of a verse.
 6. (ㅂ) Zäqēph-gādhōl: 7. (־) Típhchā.

 initiale $\dagger$.
 Têlīshä†: 18. (-) Gü̈'résh: 19. (-) Double Gárésh: 20. (1) Pésīq, between the words.

> B. Conjunctives (Servi).
21. $(-)$ Mërkā: 22. ( - ) Münāch: 23. (-) Double Mërkī: 24. ( - ) Mühpükh:

[^23]25. (-) Qüllımā: 26. (-) Därgā: 27. ( $\bar{v}$ ) Yä'rŭch: 28. (ㄴ) Little Tétishū †† : 29. (-) Tìphchū final*: 30. ( $\because$ ) Mërkū with Zürqā̄*: 31. (ㄴ) Mähpăkh with Zärqā.*

## REMARKS ON THE ACCENTS.

I. As Siigns of the Tone.

1. As in Greek (comp. єi $\boldsymbol{i} i$ and $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \boldsymbol{i} \mu$ ), so also in Hebrew, words which are written with the same
 (in us); קָּדָ quamū (she stood up), quamá (standing up, fem.). (Compare in English compáct and cómpact.-'Tr.)
2. As a rule, the accents stand on the tone-syllable, and properly on its initial consonant. Some, however, stand only on the first letter of a word (prepositive), others only on the last letter (postpositice). The former are designated in the table by $\dagger$, the latter by $\dagger \dagger$. These do not, therefore, clearly indicate the tone-syllable, which must be known in some other way. Those marked with an asterisk are used only in the poetical books.
3. The place of the accent, when it is not on the final syllable, is indicated in this book by the sign


## II. As Signs of Interpunction.

4. In respect to this use of the accents, every verse is regarded as a period, which closes with Silluq, $\dagger$ or, in the figurative language of the grammarians, as a realm (ditio), which is governed by the great Distinctive at the end (Imperator). According as the verse is long or short, i. e. as the empire is large or small, so varies the number of Domini of different grades, which form the larger and smaller divisions.
5. Conjunctives (Servi) unite only such words as are closely connected in sense, as a noun with an adjective, or with another noun in the genitive, etc. For the closest connexion of two or several words Maqqeph is used ( $\S 16,1$ ).
6. In very short verses few conjunctives are used, and sometimes none; a small distinctive, in the vicinity of a greater, having a connective power (servit domino majori). In very long verses, on the contrary, conjunctives are used for the smaller distinctives (funt legati dominorum).
7. The choice of this or that conjunctive depends on very subtile laws of consecution, with which the learner need not trouble himself at present. It is sufficient for him to know the greater distinctives, which answer to our period, colon, and comma, though they often stand where a half comma is scarcely admissible. They are most important in the poetical books for dividing a verse into its members. (See in the Reading Book at the end of this Grammar, and more fully in Nordheimer's Heb. Grammar, §§ 1151-1157.)

Sect. 16.
MAQQEPH AND METHEGH.

## These are both closely connected with the accents.

1. Maqqeph (טֵּקטק binder) is a small horizontal stroke between two words, which

[^24]thus become so united that, in respect to tone and interpunction, they are regarded as one, and have but one accent. Two, three, and four words may be united in
 all which to him (was), Gen. xxv. 5.



2. Methegh ( ֶֶֶֶa bridle), a small perpendicular line on the left of a vowel, forms a kind of check upon the influence of the accents as marking the tonesyllable, and shows that the vowel, though not accented, should not be hastily passed over in pronunciation. It stands, therefore, regularly by the vowel of the antepenultima when the last syllable has the tone, whether that vowel be long, as
 be understood according to the view which regards the half vowels (simple Shera vocal and composite $S h^{e} v a$ ) as forming a syllable ( $§ 10,1$, and $§ 26,4$ ) ; accordingly Methegh stands $a$ ) by the vowel which precedes a vocal Sheva (simple or composite),
 vocal Sheva itself קרָאָנָ Job v. 1.

When it stands by Sheva, many Jewish Grammarians call it Ga'ya N্Ny, whe others use this name in general for every Methegh.
N.B. It is of special service to the beginner, as indicating (according to letter a above) the quantity of Qamets and Chireq before a She va. Thus in $\underset{\sim}{\text { P }} \boldsymbol{\sim}$ the $(\Gamma)$ stands in the antepemultima, and that the $S h^{e} v a$ is here vocal and forms a syllable; but the ( $(\cdot)$ in an open syllable before (:) must be long ( $\S 26,3$ ), consequently Qamets, not Qamets-
 elosed syllable, and is consequently short (Qamets-chatuph). Thus also wn? (they fear) with Methegh is a trisyllable with a long $i, y \bar{z}-r e-\bar{u}$, but w? ? (they see) without Methegh is a dissyllable with short $i, y i r-\bar{u}$. (See above, the rule about Qamets and Qamets-chatuph, in $\S 9$ at the end.)

Sect. 17.

## QERI AND KETHIBH.

The margin of the Hebrew Bible exhibits a number of varions readings of an early date (§3,2), called 'p? (to be read), because in the view of the Jewish eritics they are to be preferred to the reading of the text, called warnitten). Those critics have therefore attached the vowel signs, appropriate to the marginal reading, to the consonants of the corresponding word in the text; e. g. in

Jer. xlii. fi, the text exhihits text belong to the word in the margin, which is to be pronounced reading the text אנו, the proper rowels must be supplied, making A small circle or asterisk over the word in the text always directs to the marginal reading.

As to the value of the marginal readings in point of criticism, see Gesenius's Gesch. der Ifelr. Spruche, S. 50, 75.

## CHAPTER II.

## pecuidarities and changes of letters; OF Syllables AND THE TONE.

Sect. 18.
In order fully and rightly to comprehend the changes which the forms of the rarious parts of speech undergo, it is necessary first to get acquainted with certain general laws on which those changes depend. These general laws are founded partly on the peculiarities of certain classes of letters, considered individually or as combined in syllables, and partly on certain usages of the language in reference to syllables and the tone.

Sect. 19.

## CHANGES OF CONSONANTS.

The changes occasioned among consonants by the formation of words, inflexion, cuphony, or certain influences connected with the progress of the language, are commutation, assimilation, rejection and addition, transposition.

1. Commutation takes place most naturally among letters which are pronounced


 approximated to the Aramæan, hard and rough sounds were exchanged for softer
 stituted the corresponding flat sounds, as $\rceil$ for $\boldsymbol{i}, \stackrel{\nu}{\nu}$ for $\Xi, ~ \Omega$ for $\because$.

This interchange of consonants affects the original forms of words more than it does their grammatical inflexion; the consideration of it, therefore, belongs rather
to the lexicon.* Examples occur, however, in the grammatical inflexion of words; viz., the interchange $a$ ) of $\Omega$ and $ט$ in Hithpaël ( $\$ 54$ ), $b$ ) of 1 and "in verbs $\operatorname{Pe}$ Yodh (§69), as $\mathcal{Z}_{-}$’ for
2. Assimilation usually takes place when one consonant at the close of a syllable passes over into another begimning the next syllable, so as to form with it a double sound, as illustris for inlustris ; diffusus for disfusus. In Hebrew this occursa) most frequently with the feeble nasal $\rfloor$, especially before the harder consonants,
 give ; נָהתָּתָּתָ

b) less frequently, and only in certain cases, with $\zeta$, $7, \Omega$, c. g. Me.. for Mph:? he

In all these cases, the assimilation is expressed by a Daghesh forte in the following letter. In a final consonant, however, as it cannot be doubled $(\$ 20,3, a)$,
 to bear. (Comp. $\tau v \psi \bar{a} s$ for $\tau u \psi a \nu s$.)

In these last cases the assimilated letter has not Shera, but the helping rowel Seghol (§ 28, 4), which, however, does not render the assimilation impracticable.

In the way of assimilation, we occasionally find a sccond weaker sound swallowed up by the


3. The rejection or falling away of a consonant easily happens in the case of the feebly-uttered vowel letters $\mathbf{N}, \boldsymbol{\pi}, \boldsymbol{\text { , ' }}$, and also of the liquids. It happens-
a) at the begiming of a word (apheeresis), when such a feeble consonant has not a full vowel, and its sound is easily lost upon the ear, as (we);

b) in the midst of a word (contraction), when such a feeble consonant is preceded by a Sheva, e. g. .he the the prevailing form for ?

 genitive בְּנִי.

Bolder changes were made in the infancy of the language, particularly in casting away con-
 $\S 99$, and $\S 100,4$ ). Here belongs also the change of the feminine ending $\pi=u$ uth to $n-\bar{\sim}$ (sce $\S 41$, 1 , and $\S 80,2$ ).

[^25]4. In other cases a harshness in pronunciation is prevented by the addition


5. Transposition, in grammar, seldom occurs. An example of it is for ( $\$ 54,2$ ), because shtis easier to sound than thsh. Cases are more frequent
萑 garment; they are, however, chiefly confined to the sibilants and liquids.

Consonauts, especially the weaker, may also at the end of a syllable be softened to vowels, like



Sect. 20.

## doubling of consonants

1. The doubling of a letter by Daghesh forte takes place, and is essential, i. e. necessary to the form of the word (Daghesh essential) -
a) when the same letter is to be written twice in succession, without an inter-
 have set.
b) in cases of assimilation ( $\S 19,2$ ) as for called Dagheslo compensative.
c) when the doubling of a letter originally single is characteristic of a grammatical form, e. g. לָׁhe has learned, but he has taught (Daghesh characteristic).

The double consonant is actually and necessarily written twice, whenever a vowel sound, even the shortest (a rocal Sher ${ }^{\mathrm{r} a}$ ), comes between. Hence this is done $a$ ) when a long rowel preeedes, as in ant (insolent), which is read ho-lelim ( $\$ 26$, Rem.), frequently also after a mere tone-lengthened rowel, as in when which is, however, usually contracted into wive ; b) when a Daghesh has already

 call me), where 7 and vowel, as $\pi$ ? ? ? construct of ns? ? Sometimes the same word is found in both the full form and the contracted, e. g.,
2. A consonant is sometimes doubled merely for the sake of cuphony. The use of Daghesh in such cases (Daghesh cuphonic) is only occasional, as being less essential to the forms of words. It is employed-
a) when two words, of which the first ends in a rowel, are more closely united in

[^26]pronunciation by doubling the initial consonant of the sccond (Daghesh forte





Analogous to the usage above mentioned is the Neapolitan le llagrime for le lagrime, and (ineluding the union of the two words in one) the Italian alla for a la, della for de la.
b) when the final consonant of a closed syllable, preceded by a short vowel, is doubled in order to sharpen the syllable still more, e. g. עִיְנבּ grapes, Deut. xxxii. 32. (Compare Gen. xlix. 10; Ex. ii. 3; Is. lvii. 6-lviii. 3; Job xvii. 2; 1 Sam. xxviii. 10; Ps. xlv. 10.) Examples of this, however, are comparatively rare, and without any regard to uniformity.

 as written in the time of Luther.
c) when the final tone-syllable of a sentence ( $\$ 29,4$ ) is to receive more firmness
 יחֵלו they waited, Job xxix. 21, Is. xxxiii. 12.
3. The Hebrews omitted, however, the doubling of a letter by Daghesh forte, in many cases where the analogy of the forms required it; viz.-
a) always at the end of a word, because there the syllable did not admit of sharpening. Thus the syllable all would be pronounced, not as in German with a sharpened tone, $\dagger$ but like the English all, call, small. Instead, therefore, of doubling $\ddagger$ the consonant, they often lengthened the preceding vowel ( $\$ 27,2$ ),
 exceptions are very rare, as $\underset{\sim}{\text { Nַ }}$ thou $f$., נָּ § 10,3, Rem.).
b) often at the end of a syllable, in the body of a word (where the doubling of



[^27]
#### Abstract

In these cases it inay be nasumed as a rule, that the Daghesh remains in the letter with Shera (which is then rocal, $\S 10,1$ ), and is never left ont of the aspirates, becanse it materially affeets  On the contrary, it is usually omitted in the preformatives ? and p in Piel, as 

In some cases a vowel or half vowel was inserted to render the doubling of the letter more  c) In the gutturals (see § 22,1 ).

Rem. In the later books we sometimes find Daghesh omitted, and then compensation made by  


Sect. 21.

## ASPIRATION AND THE REMOVAI، OF IT BY DAGHESH LENE.

The pure hard sound of the six aspirates ( $\boldsymbol{\Omega}, \beth, コ,\urcorner, \lambda, \beth$, ) with Daghesh lene inserted, is to be regarded, agreeably to the analogy which languages generally exhibit in this respect, as their original prommeiation, from which gradually arose the softer and weaker aspirated sound ( $\S 6,3$, and $\S 13$ ). The original hard pronunciation maintained itself in greatest purity when it was the initial sound, and after a consonant; but when it followed a vowel sound immediately, it was
 yiphröts. Hence the aspirates take Daghesh lene:

1. At the beginning of words, when the preceding word ends with a rowelless
 ning of a chapter or verse, or even of a minor division of a verse (consequently after a distinctive accent, § 15,3 ), e. g. תִּ促
 Also a diphthong ( $\$ 8,5$ ), so called, is here treated as ending in a consonant, e. g. בְּ שָּ Judges $\mathbf{v}$, 15. (Daghesh lene is therefore regularly found after יהוה, because was read instead of it.)
2. In the middle and at the end of words after silent $S^{\prime} h^{c} v a$, i. e. at the beginning of a syllable, being immediately preceded by a vowelless consonant, e. g.
 rocal Sleva they take the soft pronunciation, e. g. רְשָּ heal thou, בָּבָּ she is heary.
N.B. The aspirates have the soft sound also especially in-
a) Forms which are made, by the addition or omission of letters, immediately from other forms in

 ( become accustomed, was retained; thus, ride phū, malekhê, bikhethâbh.*

Rem. 1. The form $\underset{\sim}{\square}$ the preceding vowel, was originally $\underset{\sim}{\min } \boldsymbol{\sim}$; ; and the relation of $\pi$, notwithstanding the slight vowel sound thrown in before it, was regarded as unchanged. Comp. § $28,4$.
 § $58,3, b$.
2. Also the tone appears at times to affect the division of a word into syllables, and consequently: the sound of the aspirates; thus, ? (in pause) Eze. xl. 43.

3. That the hard or soft pronunciation of these letters did not affect the signification of words, affords no reason to doubt that such a distinction was made. Comp. in Greek $\theta \rho i \xi, \tau \rho \iota \chi$ ús.

Sect. 22.

## PECULIARITIES OF THE GUTTURALS.

The four gutturals, $\boldsymbol{\Pi}, \boldsymbol{\pi}, \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{N}$, have certain properties in common, which result from the pronunciation peculiar to them; yet $\aleph$ and $\nu$, having a softer sound than $\pi$ and $\pi$, differ from these in several respects.

1. The gutturals cannot be doubled in pronunciation, and therefore exclude Daghesh forte. To our organs also there is a difficulty in doubling an aspiration. But the syllable preceding the letter which omits Daghesh appears longer in consequence of the omission; $\dagger$ hence its vowel is commonly lengthened, especially before the feebler letters $\mathbb{N}$ and $\mathcal{V}$, e. g. . הָּׁ
 though orthography excluded Dagh. $f$. (as in German the ch in sicher, machen, has the sharp pronuciation without being written double), and hence the short vowel almost universally maintains its place before these letters, e. g. הַהֹרֶּ the month, הַה that.

As these last forms are treated as though the guttural were doubled, the grammarians not inappropriately speak of them as having a Daghesh forte implicitum, occultum, or delitescens; c. g. ロַּ

2. They are inclined to take a short $A$ sound before them, because this vowel stands organically in close affinity to the gutturals. Hence-

[^28](1) Before a ghutural, Pathuch is used instead of any other short vowel, as $\check{\imath}$, $\check{e}$ (Chireq parvum, Seghol), and even for the rhythmically long $\bar{e}$ and $\bar{o}$ (T'sere and
 decisively preferrel when the form with Pathach is the original one, or is used in common with another. Thus in the Imp. and Fut. Kal of verbs; שְׁל

 b) But a strong and unchangeable vowel, as i, $\downarrow,\urcorner,(\$ 25,1)$, and in many cases Tsere, is retained. Between it and the guttural, however, there is involuntarily uttered a hasty $\breve{a}$ (Pathach furtive), which is written under the guttural. This is found only in final syllables, and never under $\mathfrak{N}$; e. g. חַּוּ $r \bar{u}^{a} c h$ (spirit),



For the same reason the Swiss pronounces $i c h$ as $i^{a} c h$, and the Arabian mesiech, though neither urites the supplied vowel. [Analogous to this is our use of a furtive e before $r$ after long $\bar{e}, \bar{\Sigma}, \bar{u}$, and the diphthong ou; e. g. here (sounded héer), fire ( $\mathcal{f}^{e} r$ ), pure ( $p \bar{u}^{e} r$ ), and our (oūer).]

The Pathach furtive falls away when the word receives an accession at the end, e. g. .in spirit, Tִו ר my spirit, where the $\pi$ is made the beginning of the new syllable.

The LXX. write $\epsilon$ instead of Pathach furtive, as | j |
| :--- |
| N |
| $\omega$ | .

Rem. 1. The guttural sometimes exerts an influence on the following rowel. But the examples of this usage are few, and are rather to be regarded as exceptions than as establishing a general
 be admissible without the influence of the guttural, as in the Imp. and Fut. of verbs, e. g.


2. Seghol is used instead of Pathach both before and under the guttural, but only in an initial
 Seghol.

When, however, the syllable is sharpened by Daghesh, the more slender and sharp Chireq is
 by the falling away of Daghesh, the Seghol, which is required by the guttural, returns, e. g. הַּנְ const. state
3. Instead of simple Sheva rocal, the gutturals take a composite Sheva (§ 10, 2),
 most common use of the composite Shevas.
4. When a guttural stands at the end of a (closed) syllable, in the midst of a word, and has under it the syllable-divider (silent Sleva, § 10,3 ), then the division of syllables often takes place as usual, especially when that syllable has the tone, e. g. $\min _{\substack{n}}$
usually a softening of the sound by giving to the guttural a slight vowel (one of the composite Slevas), which has the same sound as the full vowel preceding, as
 changed into the short vowel with which it is compounded, whenever the following consonant loses its full vowel in consequence of an increase at the end of the


Rem. 1. Simple Shera under the gutturals, the grammarians call hard ( $\underset{\sim}{*} \dot{\sim}$ She eras in the same situation soft (רֶָָ). See more in the obscrrations on verbs with gutturals (§§ 62-65).
2. Respecting the choice between the three composite She vas it may be remarked, that-
 when a word receives an accession at the end, or loses the tone, $x$ also takes $\bar{\circ}$, as

b) In the middle of a word, the choice of a composite Sheva is regulated by the vowel (and its class) which another word of the same form, but without a guttural, would take before the Shera; as



For some further vowel changes in connexion with gutturals, see § 27 , Rem. 2.
5. The 7 , which the Hebrew uttered also as a guttural ( $£ 6,2,1$ ), shares with the other gutturals only the characteristics mentioned above in No. 1, and a part of those given in No. 2; viz. -
a) The exclusion of Daghesh forte; in which case the vowel before it is always lengthened, as בֵּ בֵּ he has blessed for
b) The use of Pathach* before it in preference to the other short vowels, though this is not so general as in the case of the other guttural sounds, e. g. Nיִ
 and for
 shör-rēkh, Eze. xvi. 4, where 7 is notwithstanding doubled (also in Arabic it admits of doubling,



Sect. 23.

## THE FEEBLENESS OF TIIE BREATHINGS N AND ה.

1. The $\mathbf{N}$, a light and scarcely audible breathing in the throat, regularly loses its feeble power as a consonant (it quiesces), whenever it stands without a vowel at

[^29]the end of a syllable. It then serves merely to prolong the preceding vowel (like

 situation short vowels, with few exceptions, become long, as for for for Nű:。
2. On the contrary $\boldsymbol{N}$ generally retains its power as a consonant and guttural in all cases where it begins a word or syllable, as he has said, jecter, hane for to eat. I'et even in this position it sometimes loses its consonant sound, when it fullows a short vowel or a half vowel (rocal Sheva) in the middle of a word; for then the vowel under $\mathfrak{N}$ is either shifted back so as to be united with
 (with $\hat{\imath}$ changed to $\hat{0}, \S 9,10,2$ ) for (chotim) for

 times also the vowel before N remains short when it is $\check{a}$, e. g. '


Instead of $\mathbb{N}$ in such a case, there is often written one of the vowel letters ! and ', according to the nature of the sound, the former with 6 and the latter with $\hat{e}$ and $\bar{\imath}$; e. g. רỉ for 7 크 (cistern),
 Hethibh; at the end of a word $i n$ also is written for $心$, as

3 When $\mathfrak{s}$ is thus quiescent, it is sometimes entirely dropped, e. g. יָּדֶ? (I went

 תוֹה Is. xxxvii. 26.

Rem. 1. In Aramæan the $\mathbf{s}$ becomes a rowel much more readily than in Hebrew; but in Arabie, on the contrary, its power as a consonant is much firmer. According to Arabic orthography $\mathfrak{N}$ serves also to indicate the lengthened $\hat{a}$; but in Hebrew the examples are very rare, in which it is strictly a vowel letter for the long $A$ sound, as poor Prov. x. 4, xiii. 23 for $\mathrm{cin}_{\text {. }}$. Hebrew orthography generally omits, in this case, the rowel letter (§8, 3).
2. In Syriac N even at the beginning of words cannot be spoken with a half vowel (rocal Sleeva), but then always receives a full vowel, usually $E$, as לָּ in Syr. ckhal. Accordingly in Hebrew, also, instead of a composite She era it receives, in many words, the corresponding long vowel, as וֹת girdle for
3. We may call it an Arabism, or a mode of writing common in Arabic, when at the end of a word an $s$ (withont any sound) is added to a (not being part of the root), as sab for form (they go) Josh. x. 24, N̦, (they are willing) Is. xxviii. 12. Similar are Nor for pure, wh for the NiEs for iEsthen. The case is different in Nand
4. The $\boldsymbol{i}$ is stronger and firmer than the $\mathbf{N}$, and scarcely ever loses its aspiration (or quiesces) in the middle of a word;* also at the end it may remain a consonant, and then it takes Mappiq ( $\S 14,1$ ). Yet at times the consonant sound of the $\cdots$ at the end of a word is given up, and in (without Mappiq, or with Raphe i) then remains only as a representative of the final vowel, e. g. הָ (to her) Num. xxxii. 42, for לָ Job xxxi. 22; Ex. ix. 18. The $\pi$ at the beginning of a syllable

 these cases of contraction, the half vowel ${ }^{e}(-)$ before $ה$ is displaced by the full vowel under it. In other cases, however, the vowel under is is displaced by the one before it, as


According to this, the so-called quiescent ir at the end of a word stands, sometimes, in the place of the consonant $\mathfrak{A}$. But usually it serves quite another purpose, viz., to represent final $\bar{a}$, as also $\bar{o}, \bar{e}$ and $\ddot{a}$ (Seghol), e. g.

 Hos. vi. 9), and in all cases for ss according to later and Aramean orthography, particularly in
 נֶּטּה , etc.

Sect. 24.

## Changes of the feeble letters $/$ and $\cdot$.

The 1 [the sound of which is probably between our $w$ and $v$ ] and the ' [our $y$ ] are as consonants so feeble and soft, approaching so near to the corresponding vowel sounds $u$ and $i$, that they easily flow into these vowels in certain conditions. On this depend, according to the relations of sounds and the character of the grammatical forms, still further changes which require a general notice in this place, but which will also be explained in detail wherever they occur in the inflexions of words. This is especially important for the form and inflexion of the feeble stems, in which a radical 1 or ${ }^{\dagger}$ occurs ( $\S 69$, etc., and 85, III.- VI.).

1. The cases where 1 and 'lose their power as consonants and flow into vowel sounds, are principally only in the middle and end of words, their consonant sound

[^30]being nearly always heard at the beginning.* These cases are chiefly the fol-lowing:-
a) When 1 or 'stands at the end of a syllable, immediately after a vowel. The feeble letter has not strength enough, in this position, to maintain its consonant


 xxv. 18, K'thilh). After homogencous vowels, particularly pure $u$ and $i, 1$ and constantly quiesce in these cases. But after a heterogencous vowel they sound
 disclosed. But with a preceding short $a \$ and ' mostly form a diphthongal $\hat{o}$ and $\hat{c}$; see below, No. $2, b$.
b) When $\mathrm{lor}^{ }$' is preceded by vocal $\mathrm{Sh}^{\mathrm{c}} \mathrm{va}$, and such syliables are formed as $q^{\circ}$ vom,
 1 and 'preceded by Sheva come to stand at the end of a word; as שִּ

c) Very seldom when the feeble letter has a full vowel both before and after it; as
 mî, quum contr. cum.

In Syriac, where these letters flow still more readily into wowel sounds, ${ }^{\top}$ is sounded, even at the beginning of words, merely as $i$, not as ! or ! (like e for s! ); and so in the LXX.
 also in Hebrew, which transfers the rowel $i$, belonging to the feeble letter, to the preceding
 Fecles. ii. 13 , ויחמלו (in some editions) for Job xxix. 21 and they waited.
2. When such a contraction has taken place, the vowel letter quiesces (see p. 22 , note $\dagger$ ) regularly in a long vowel. Respecting the choice of this vowel, the following rules may be laid down :-
a) When the vowel, which an analogous form without the feeble letter would take, is homogencous with the vowel letter, it is retained and lengthened, as בטי". he is

b) When a short $a$ stands before 'and $ו$, there arise diphthongal $\hat{e}$ and $\hat{o}$ (according


[^31]c) But when the vowel sign is heterogeneous, and at the same time is an essential characteristic of the form, it controls the feeble letter, and changes it into one



An original $\stackrel{-}{ }-$ at the end of words becomes-
a) $\pi-$ (for ${ }^{\top}$ is never written at the end of a word), when the impure sound $a$ must be used ; e.g.

b) $\underset{\sim}{*}$ - when the $A$ sound predominates, and is characteristic of the form ; as -

Sect. 25.

## UNCHANGEABLE YOWELS.

What vowels in Hebrew are firm and irremovable, can be known, with certainty and completeness, only from the nature of the grammatical forms, and from a comparison with the Arabic, in which the vowel system appears purer and more original than in Hebrew. This holds, especially, of the essentially long vowels in distinction from those which are long only rhythmically, i. e. through the influence of the tone and of syllabication, and which, having arisen out of short vowels, readily become short again by a change in the position of the tone and in the division of the syllables. The beginner may be guided by the following speci-fications:-

1. The essentially long and therefore unchangeable vowels of the second and third class, viz., $\bar{\imath}, \bar{u}, \hat{e}, \hat{o}$, are mostly expressed anong the consonants [or in the line] by their vowel letters, $\bar{\imath}$ and $\hat{e}$ by ${ }^{\wedge}, \bar{u}$ and $\hat{o}$ by $\mathfrak{l}$, with their appropriate vowel
 The defective mode of writing these vowels $(\S 8,4)$ is indeed frequently sufficient;
 ference of orthography, by which nothing is essentially changed in the nature and


The exception here is, when, on the contrary, now and then a merely rhythmically long rowel of these two classes is written fully, e. g. ó in לivp? for ל?
2. The essentially long and unchangeable $\hat{a}$ has in Hebrew, as a rule, no representative among the consonants, though in Arabic it has, viz., the $\mathbf{N}$, which occurs

[^32]here but very seldom ( $\S 9,1, \S 23,3$, Rem. 1). For ascertaining this case, therefore, there is no gride but a knowledge of the forms (see § 84, Nos. 6, 13, 28).

3. Unchangeable is also a short vowel in a sharpened syllable, followed by Dughesh forte, e. g. בּנְ

4. Such are also the vowels after which a Daghesh forte has been omitted on account of a guttural, according to $\S 22,1$ (forma dagessanda), e. g. הָרֵי־یי for הַרֵי-s mountains of God; ; בַּ her he has been blessed.

Sect. 26.

## SHLLABLES AND THEIR influence on the quantity of vowels.

To obtain an adequate view of the laws, according to which the long and short rowels are chosen or exchanged one for another, a previous acquaintance is required with the theory of syllabication, on which that choice and exchange depend. The syllable may then be viewed with reference, partly to its commencement (its initial sound) as in No. 1, and partly to its close (its final sound) as in Nos. 2-7. The latter view is of chief importance.

1. With regard to the commencenent of the syllable, it is to be observed, that every syllable must begin with a consonant; and there are no syllables in the language which begin with a vowel. The single exception is (and), in certain cases for ! !, e. g. in (\$ וֹלֶל $(\$ 104,2, b)$.* The word is no exception, because the $N$ has here the force of a light breathing.
2. With regard to the close of a syllable, it may end-
 first and last are open. See No. 3.
b) With a half vowel or vocal Shéva, as $p^{e}$ in

c) With one consonant: a closed or mixed syllable, as the second in לֵבָב , לָטֶל Sce No. 5.

[^33]
## § 26. Syllables and their influence on tie quantity of vowels.

 Nos. $3-7$ ) treat in particular of the vowels that are used in these various kinds of syllables.
3. The open or simple syllables have, as a rule, a long vowel,* whether they have the tone, as in thee, לֵּ Aํํㄴ they will fear. Usually there is a long vowel (Qamets, less frequently Tsere) in an open syllable before the tone (pretonic vowel), e. g. .

Short vowels in open syllables occur only in the following cases:-
a) In dissyllabic words formed by means of a helping vowel (§28,4) from monosyllables (Seyholates),
 rowel is very short, and the word sounds almost as one syllable. Yet the first vowel is also lengthened, as in $2 \underset{?}{2}$, another form for

c) Before the so-called He local, which has not the tone ( $\$ 90,2$ ), c. g. Pִדְבְּרָה towards the wilderness.

In all these cases the short rowel is supported by the chief tone of the word. Elsewhere it has at least the support of Methegh, viz.-
d) In these connexions, $\overline{:-1-}, \bar{\pi}, \bar{\pi}: \bar{\pi}$, as and thy adorning.
e) In some other forms, as rūshēm (roots); comp. page 27 and § 28,3 .
 No. 6, below.
4. There is also a slighter sort of open syllables, consisting of one consomant and a half vowel (or vocal Sleva, § $10,1,2$ ), and may be called half syllables. They are so short, and so unfit to stand by themselves, that they constantly lean on the



The modern grammarians do not regard these as actual syllables, but always reckon them as part of that which immediately follows [thus they regard $r$ ? as forming but one syllable lechī, and

[^34]not two $l$-chit ]. The half rowel is certainly not fit to serve as the final sound of a full syllable; nad, according to the promanciation handed down to us, this syllable with Shera is obviously of a diflerent sort from the open syllable with a full vowel (No.3). But yet that half rowel is in general lout a shortening of an original long vowel, which is commonly still to be found in Arabic; nod even the Jewish grammarians, from whom the vowels and aceents came, have assigned to the union of a consonant with a hald vowel the value of a syllable, as appears from the use of Methegh (sce § $16,2, b$ ).
5. The closed syllables, ending with one consonant, have necessarily, when without the tone, short vowels, both at the beginning and at the end of words, ${ }^{*}$
 and he set up, and he stood up.

When with the tone, they may have a long vowel as well as a short, e. g. הָ wise, strength enough to stand in such a syllable having the tonc. $\dagger$ Examples of long vowels in the final syllable, are $7 \underset{\sim}{3}$,

6. A peculiar sort of closed syllables are the sharpened, i. e. those which end with the same consonant with which the following syllable begins, as " $\mathrm{im}-\mathrm{mi}$, ? kull-l. Like the other closed syllables, these have, when without the tone, short rowels, as in the examples just given; when with the tone, either short, as , דֶ, or long, as Mnּ

Sharpened syllables are wholly avoided at the end of words; see $\S 20,3$, letter $a$.
7. Closed syllables, ending with two consonants, occur only at the end of words, and have most naturally short vowels, as $\prod_{: \rightarrow 0}$
 harshmess is avoided by the use of a helping vowel ( $\S 28,4)$.

Rem. In the division into syllables, accordingly, a simple She eva after a short vowel belongs to the foregoing syllable, and is quiescent, as pִ pir-má ; but after a long vowel to the following,



[^35]Sect. 27.
CHANGES OF VOWELS, ESPECIALLY IN RESPECT TO THEIR QUANTITY.
As to the changes, which the vowels undergo by the inflexion of words, we may first lay down these fundamental principles,-
a) That they generally occur only in the last syllable and the last but one, very seldom in the antepenultima, e.g. פָּ word, constr. st.

b) That they are usually made within the limits of one and the same vowel class $[\$ 8]$. Thus $\bar{a}$ may be shortened into $\bar{a}$ and $\ddot{a}, \bar{e}$ into $\bar{\imath}$ and $\bar{c}, \bar{o}$ into $\bar{o}$ and $\bar{u}$; and with the same limitation the short vowels may become long. But such a change as turning $a$ into $u$ can never take place.

The most material exception consists in the approximation of the first rowel class to the second, by attenuating Pathach into Chireq and Seghol; see below, Rem. 2 and 3. So also in the derivation of obtuse Seghol from vowels belonging to all three classes; see Rem. 4.

The vowels, with the changes of which we are chiefly concerned here, are all the short ones, and as many of the long as owe their length simply to the tone and rhythm, viz.-

| Long vowels (by the influence of the tone), $\bar{\iota}$ | Corresponding short vowels, $\overline{\bar{l}}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\bar{\sim} \bar{e}$ | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \overline{\ddot{a}}, \ddot{e} \\ -\bar{i} \end{array}\right.$ |
| $-\bar{o}$ | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \bar{\tau} \\ \bar{u}(\text { Qamets-chatuph }) \\ \bar{u} \end{array}\right.$ |

To these add the half vowels or Shívas $\overline{;}, \bar{F}, \bar{F}$, as the utmost shortenings.

Let the student compare here again what was said in $\S 9$, on the character and value of the several vowels; and in $\S 25$, on the unehangeable vowels.

Agreeably to the scale of $\S 26$, the following changes occur: -

1. A tone-long vowel is changed into a kindred short one, when a closed syllable loses the tone $(\$ 26,5)$. Thus, when the tone is mored forwards, $7_{T}$ lumed hecomes

 F…，7．．．．．So also，when an open syllable with a long vowel becomes by inflexion
 these cases Tisere（ $\bar{i}$ ）passes over into Seqhol（ $\bar{e}$ ）or Cliveq（ $\bar{\imath}$ ），Cholem（ $\bar{o}$ ）into Qamets－chatuph（i）．But when a closed syllable with a long vowel becomes a sharpened one，i．e．curling with a doubled consonant，Tsere is attenuated into Chireq，and Cholem into Qibbuts，as Dx mother，＂品 my mother；pir statute，plur． E．

The short rowels $\check{z}$ and $\check{้}$ are more pure，and hence pass for shorter than $\check{\varepsilon}$ and $\check{\delta}$ ．
2．On the contrary，a short vowel is changed into a corresponding long one，－ a）When a closed syllable，in which it stands，becomes an open one，i．e．when the word receives an accession，beginning with a vowel，to which the final consonant
 D．פּכַת
b）When a syllable，which should be sharpened by Daghesh forte，has a guttural for its final consonant（see $\S 22,1$ ），or stands at the end of a word（see § $20,3, a)$ ．
c）When it meets with a feeble letter（according to $\S 23,1,2 ; \S 24,2$ ），as N゙ざ for $\mathfrak{N}$ ™ he has found．
d）When the syllable is in pause，i．e．is the tone－syllable of the last word in the clause（§ 29,4 ）．

3．When a word increases at the end，and the tone is at the same time shifted forward，all vowels（long and short）may，according to the division of syllables， either pass over into a half vowel（vocal Shi ${ }^{\text {eva），or may even be entirely dropped，}}$ so that only the syllable－divider（silent She ${ }^{\text {era }}$ ）supplies their place；e．g．for the first case is（name）pl．שִּ
 or is changed into a half vowel，or is altogether dropped（ニフָ， which of the two rowels disappears in two successive syllables，must be determined by the nature of the word；but in general it may be said，that in the inflexion of noums the first vowel is mostly shortened in this manner，while the second，when it stands immediately before the tone－syllable（as a pretonic vowel），remains，as


a）Qamets and Tsere in the furst syllable（prineipally in the inflexion of nouns）， בּ
b) The short or merely tone-long vowels $a, e, o$, in the last syllable, especially in


 the vowel will remain notwithstanding the lengthening of the word, as دivi,

Where the tone is advanced two places, both the vowels of a dissyllabic word may be shortened, so that the first becomes $\check{\imath}$ and the second becomes Shera. From , דְּבְרִים, and with a grave suffix [i. e. one that always has
 $\breve{a}$ into $\breve{\breve{ }}$, see especially in Rem. 3 , below.

Some other vowel changes, chiefly also with respect to quantity, are exhibited in the following remarks:-

Rcm. 1. The diphthongal ; $\sigma$ (from aut, as also the $\sigma$ derived from the firm $a(\$ 9,10,2)$, is longer than $: \bar{u}$; and therefore, when the tone is moved forward, the former is often shortened into



N.B. On the contrary, $\bar{u} \bar{u}$ is shortened into $\delta$, which in the tone-syllable appears as a tonelong $\bar{o}$ (Cholem), but on the removal of the tone it becomes again ob (Qamets-chatuph), as alp: (he
 a tonc-long Tsere ( $\bar{e}$ ), and in the absence of the tone, Seghol (ĕ), as app (he will set up), ajer (lét himm set up), םיָ (and he set up); sce Parad. M. Hiphil.
2. From a Puthach (ĭ) in a closed syllable, there arises a Seghol (ě), through a further shortening or rather weakening of the sound. This happens-
 (prop.n.) for Nan 군 ; especially when a Daghesh forte is omitted in a letter which would regularly
 whom God strengthens.
b) This is more regularly the case, when Daghesh forte is omitted in a guttural that has a Qamets

 shortening is required on account of the distance of the tone ; hence, שֶהָּרֶים for the mountains,
 ened vowel cannot so easily stand ( $\$ 22,1$ ), Qamets is almost constantly used, as nỉşa the futhers,


[^36]c) In syllables properly ending with two consonants, e. g. בַּ (also in Arabic pronounced kälb), for


3. In a closed (and sharpened) syllable, which loses the tone, $a$ is at times attennated into $ٌ$,



1. The Seyhol arises, besides the cases given above, in Rem. 1 and 2, also-
a) From the weakening of $\bar{a}$ (Qamets) at the end of a word (comp. Roma, French Rome; Arab.
 Zech. ix. 5.
b) Fwen from the weakening of $u$, as (you) from the original attum (Arab. antum), see § 32, liem. 5 and 7 ; לֶֶ (to them) from the original luhum. Comp. §8, Third Class of Vowels, p. 21.
2. Among the half rowels, $(\because)$ is shorter and lighter than ( $\because:$ ), and the group $(\bar{\sigma}=$ ) than $(\overline{-r})$,



Sectr. 28.

## RISE OF NEW VOWELS AND SYLLABLES.

1. When a word begins with a half syllable ( $\S 26,4$ ), i. e. with a consonant which has a half vowel (vocal Sh'va), and there comes another half syllable before it, then this latter receives, instead of the Sheva, an ordinary short vowel, which is regularly $\check{i}$ (Chireq), but with gutturals $\check{a}$ (Pathach; c. g. נְפֹל (to fall) $n^{e} p h o ̄ l$,


 division of syllables takes place, so that the second consonant gives up its half vowel and forms a closed syllable with the first, as lin-pöl Num. xiv. 3, Jer. xvii. 2.

 (§

In Syriac, the usual vowel here is $\breve{a}(\breve{c})$, even in the absence of gutturals; in Chaldee it is the same as in Hebrew; the Arabic has always a firm short vowel for the vocal Shera.
2. When the second of the two consonants is a guttural with composite $S h^{e} v a$, then the first takes, instead of simple Sheva, the short vowel with which the other is compounded, so that we obtain the groups $\overline{=-} \overline{\%}, \bar{\pi}$, e. g. gem hew,

[^37] new vowel in such cases has Methegh, according to $\$ 16,2$, a.
3. When the first Slieva is composite, and comes to stand after an open syllable with a short vowel, then it is changed into the short rowel with which it is com-


4. At the end of words, syllables occur which close with two consonants ( $\$ 10,3$, $\S 26,7$ ); yet this takes place only when the last of these is a consonant of strong

 he wept, דיִ? let him rule, is, however, avoided in general by supplying between the two consonants a helping vowel, which is mostly Seghol, but Pathach under gutturals, $\dagger$ and Chireq after ',

 the old form Mäged. These helping vowels have not the tone, and they are dropped whenever the word increases at the end.

These helping vowels have inappropriately been called furtive, a term which should be restricted to the Pathach sounded before a final guttural, according to § 22, 2, $b$.
5. Full vowels rise out of half vowels also by reason of the Pause; see $\S 29,4$.

Sect. 29.
the tone; changes of the tone; the palde.

1. The principal tone, indicated by the accent ( $\$ 15,2$ ), rests on the final

[^38]it even on additions to the root); less frequently on the penultima, as in | bib |
| :--- |
| $\boldsymbol{B}$ |



Comnected with the principal tone is Methegh, a kind of secondary accent $(\S 16,2)$. Small words which are united by Maqqeph with the following one, are destitute of the tone ( $\$ 16,1$ ).

It is not necessary here to single out the words accented on the penultima (roces penacula); for the sake, however, of calling attention to these words, they are chiefly marked in this book with $\underset{\sim}{2}$, as a sign of the tone.

In Arabic the tone is more on the penultima, and even on the antepenultima. The Syrians accent mostly the penultima; and the Hebrew is pronounced thus, contrary to the accents, by the

2. The original tone of a word frequently shifts its place on account of changes in the word itself, or in its relation to other words. If the word is increased at the end, the tone is thrown forward (descendit) one or two syllables, according to

 the vowels, see $\S 27,1,3$.

In one case the tone is thrown forward in consequence of accession at the beginning of the word. Sce § 44, Rem. 5, $b$.
3. On the contrary, the original tone is shifted from the final syllable to the pemultima (ascendit)-
a) When the syllable •! ( $(49,2)$ is prefixed, as

b) When a monosyllabic word, or one with the tone on the penultima follows, in order to avoid the meeting of two tone-syllables; * e. g. .in win $I$ was born in it Job iii. 3, for וֹ Gen. i. 5 ; iii. 19 ; iv. 17 ; Job xxii. 28 ; Ps. xxi. 2.
c) In pause. See No. 4.

The meeting of two tone-syllables (letter b) is avoided in another way, riz., by writing the words with Maqqeph between them, in which case the first wholly loses the tone, as mode given above (letter b) is adopted whenever the penultima is an open syllable with a long vowel. Compare § 47 , Rem. 1, § 51, Rem. 3, §52, Rem. 2.
4. Very essential changes of the tone, and consequently of the rowels, are effected by the Pause. By this term is meant the strong accentuation of the tone-

[^39]syllable of the word which closes a period or member of a period, where one of the great distinctive accents stands, as a) When the syllable in pause has a short vowel, it becomes long; as bop , heprep
 xxii. 29.
 the vocal She va of the latter gives place to a full vowel; a more fitting position is thus secured for the tone, which is moved from the last syllable to the new
 is always that which had been dropped from the same syllable, in consequence of the lengthening of the word.* Moreover, rocal Slera in pause becomes Seghol, as hen, and a Chateph gives place to the analogous long vowel, as

c) This tendency to place the tone on the pemultima in pause shows itself, moreover,




The rule given under letter a relates mainly to Pathach and Seghol. Seghol is, however, strong
 as, :
 אֵ Judg. xix. 20. Pathach even takes the place of Tscre in pause; e. g. 2 בשּׁT In. Is. xlii. 22, although more usually Tsere remains; and, on the other hand, Pathach occurs also even when the word is not in pause; c. g. חֵּ for Ecc. iii. 48.

Several other changes occasioned by the pause will be noticed farther on, when treating upon the Forms and Inflexions.

[^40]
# PART SECOND. <br> forms and inflexions, or the parts of speech. 

Sect. 30.

## THE STEM-WORDS AND ROOTS (BILITERALS, TRILITERALS, QUADRILITERALS).

1. The stem-words of the Hebrew and of the other Shemitic languages have this peculiarity, that by far the most of them consist of three consonants, on which the meaning essentially depends, while its various modifications are expressed by changes in the vowels, e. g. הָדָ he was red, Such a stem-word may be indifferently either a verb or a noun, and usually the
 customary and of practical utility for the beginner to consider the third person singular of the Preterite, i. e. one of the most simple forms of the verb, as the stemword, and the other forms of both the verb and the noun, together with most of the particles, as derived from it, e. g. צָדָּ he was righteous, צֶדֶ rightcousness, P’ִּ rightcous, etc. Sometimes the language, as handed down to us, exhibits only the verbal stem without a corresponding form for the noun, as ove to stone, נָהַק to bray; and occasionally the noun is found without the corresponding verb, e. g. הֶּ nouth, nine. Yet it must be supposed that the language, as spoken, often had the forms now wanting; most of them being actually found in the cognate dialects.

Rem. 1. The Jewish grammarians call the stem-word, i. e. the third person singular of the Preterite, the root, $\operatorname{ug}^{\prime}$ consonants of the stem are called radical letters, in contradistinction from the servile letters
 Moses, and Caleb), which are added in the derivation and inflexion of words. We, however, employ the term root in a different sense, as explained here, in No. 2.
2. Many etymologists give the name root to the three stem-consonants, viewed as rowelless and unpronounceable, from which the stems for both the verbs and the nouns are developed, as, in the
vegetable kingdom (from which the figurative expression is taken), the stems grow out of the concealed root. Thus for example-

Root: מלך 10 rergn.
Verb-stem : Noun-stem : he has reigned.
This supposition of an unpronounceable root is, however, an abstraction too remote from the actual state of the language; and it is better, at least for the historical mode of treatment, to consider the concrete verb [3rd pers. sing. Pret.] as the stem-word.
3. These triliteral stems are generally of two syllables. But among them are reckoned also such as have for their middle letter a 9 , which is uttered as a vowel $(\S 24,2, c)$, and thus reduces the form to one syllable, c. g. $\mathrm{DP}_{\mathrm{T}}$ for $\mathrm{D}_{2} \mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{T}}$.
2. The use of three consonants in the stems of the verbs and nouns is so prevalent a law in the Shemitic languages, that it is to be regarded as a characteristic peculiarity of this family. Even such monosyllabic nouns as might be deemed originally monosyllables (biliteral roots), since they express the first, simplest, and
 we have " my mother, as if derived from Net ren on the other hand, stems with three consonants (triliteral roots) may be reduced to two consonants, which, with a vowel uttered between, form a sort of root-syllable, from which again several triliteral stems with the same meaning have sprung up. Such rootsyllables are called primary or biliteral roots. They are very easily distinguished when the stem has a feeble consonant or the same consonant in the second and
 and to beat in pieces, and the two stronger letters $\rceil$ T dakh [comp. Eng. thutack] constitute the monosyllabic root. The third stem-consonant may also be strong. To such a monosyllabic root there often belongs a whole series of triliteral stems, which have two radical letters and the fundamental idea in common.

Only a few examples of this sort here:-



 sibilant קד ; hence peve to cut doun, to destroy; ; pere to cut dowen, to kill; ; to cut off, to shorten; קָטָּ to tear off, to pluck off; to cut asumder, to split. A softer form of this radical
 softer are id and 7 ; hence $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{T}}$ to mow, to shear; $\boldsymbol{\pi}$, to cut off, to cat off, to graze; and so 7 to cut,
 divide, unterschiciden), and many others.

The nylhalle En expresses the humming sounil made with the mouth closed ( $\mu$ víw) ; hence
 the lie ustomished.
The rout-syllalile $\boldsymbol{y}$, of which both letters have a tremulous sound, means to tremble, in the Ntem-words 7 ̌, ugitation, as thmaler (רע)), the act of shattering, of brectiong in pieres (רעע),

Compure with these the ront-syllable $ב$ נith the idea of eleration, curving upeard (gillous), , to brenk, 放, in Gesenius's Mebrew Lexicon.
From a further consideration of this subject, we may draw the following observations:-
(i) These ronts are mure abstractions from stems in actual use, and are themselves not in use. They merely represent the hidden germs (semina) of the stems which appear in the language. Yet the latter have, how and then, so short a form, that they exhibit only the elements of the root itself,

b) Most of these monosyllabic roots are imitations of natural sounds, and sometimes coineide with the


e) The stems with hard, strong consonants are to be regarded, according to the general progress of languace ( $\$ 6,4$ ), as the oldest, while the feebler and softer consonants distinguish forms of a later period, which consequently are more frequently used for the derivative and metaphorical
 Sometimes, however, the harder or softer sound is essential to the imitative character of the word, as hs to roll (spoken of a ball, of the rolling of waves), but more for a rough sound, as made in the act of scraping $=\sigma a i p \omega$, $\sigma i \rho \omega$, verro: ב than ity to cut grass, to mow.
d) It appears also that those consonants, which resemble each other in strength or feebleness, are

 or very similar (
c) The tendency to substitute smooth for harsh sounds (see letter $c$ ) is sometimes so great, that $l, n$, $r$, especially when used as middle stem-letters, are even softened to vowels, as שָּרָ שָּ
 calitus, Ital. caldo, in Naples caullo, French chaud; falsus, falso, in Calabria fauzu, French faux; and the promuciation of the English words talk, walk. Comp. § 19, 5, Rem.
f) Often, however, the three stem-letters must all be regarded as original, since all are necessary to make the sound of the word expressive of the sense, e. g.
 brefu, Ger. brummen], to make a humming sound (to buzz, hence to spin), etc.

A fuller developunent of this active change among the elements of the language is to be sought for in the Lexicon.
3. To a sccondary process or later epoch of the language belong stem-words of four, and, in the case of nouns, even of fiee, consonants. These are, however,

[^41]comparatively far less frequent in Hebrew than in its sister dialects.* This enlargement of the form is effected in two ways: a) by adding a fourth stemletter; b) by combining into one word two triliteral stems, by which process even quinqueliterals are formed. Such enlarged forms as arise from the mere repetition
 quadriliteral, but as variations in conjugation (§55). So likewise the few words which are formed by prefixing שׁׂ , as flame, from לֶהֶהֶת .

Rem. on a). Some forms are made by the insertion particularly of $l$ and $r$ between the first and
 wind (the first form with $\urcorner$ frequent in Syr.). This mode of formation is analogous with $P$ iël, and in Aramæan the two forms exist together, as עַ, עַ, In Latin there is a corresponding enlargement of the stem; as finulo, seindo, tundo, jungo (in Sanskr., Class VII.), from fill, scill ( $\sigma \kappa \epsilon \delta \dot{\alpha} \omega$,) tudl, $j u g$. Alditions are also made at the end, principally of $l$ and $n$; as $\mathbb{i \ell n}$ ? un uxe from 1
 לan to hop (the termination $c l$ has perhaps a diminutive force, as it has in many languages).

Rem. on $b$ ). In the combination of triliterals, it generally happens that letters common to them both are written but once in the compound form, as צָּ to hop, and Arab.



It should be remarked that quadriliterals may be shortened again into triliterals; e. g. from han


4. To an earlicr stage of the language, on the contrary, belong the pronouns ( $\S 32$, foll.), and some partieles, especially interjections ( $\S 105,1$ ), which, as an ancient and crude formation, have not attained to the model of the triliteral stems, and follow peculiar and freer laws of inflexion. $\dagger$ Most of the particles, howerer, are either derived from nouns or resemble them in inflexion, although their form is often very much shortened on account of their enclitic nature, and their origin can no longer be known. (See § 99, etc.)

[^42]Sect. 31.

## grammatical structure.

1. The formation of the parts of speech from the roots, and their inflexion, are effected in two ways: a) by changes in the stem itself, particularly in its vowels; b) by the addition of formative syllables. A third method, viz., the use of several separate words in place of inflexion (as in expressing the comparative degree and several relations of ease), belongs rather to the syntax than to that part of grammar which treats of forms.

The second mode of forming words, viz., by agglutination, which is exemplified in the Egyptian, appears on the whole to be the more ancient of the two. Yet other languages, as well as the Shemitic, had early recourse also to the first mode, viz., internal modification of the stem, and in the period of their youthful vigour developed a strong tendency to follow this process; but in their later periods this tendency continually diminished in force, so that it became necessary to use syntactical circumlocution. This is exemplified in the Greek (including the modern) and in the Latin with its corrupt branches (called the Romance language). The formation of words by agglutimation is prevalent in ancient and modern Egyptian; that by internal modification, in Sanskrit and Greck. The Chinese is almost entirely destitute of any grammatical structure, and supplies its place by syntactical methods.
2. Both methods of formation and inflexion are found in Hebrew. That which


 in almost all languages, in the formation of the persons of the verb, where also the import of these annexed syllables is still, for the most part, perfectly clear (see $\S \S 44,4 \overline{7}$ ); moreover, it occurs in the distinction of gender and number in the verb and the noum. Of case-endings, on the contrary, there appear in Hebrew only slight traces [ $\$ 90$ ].

## CHAPTER I.

## THE PRONOUN.

Sect. 32.

## THE PERSONAL OR SEPARATE PRONOUN.

1. Tire personal pronoun (as well as the pronouns generally) is among the oldest and simplest elements of the language ( $\S 30,4$ ). On this account, and because it lies at the foundation of the flexion of the verb ( $\$ \S 44,47$ ), it properly claims our first attention.
2. The separate and primary forms of this pronoun, and as such expressing the nominative, are the following:-

Singular.

1. comm. אָדִִי, in pause


2. $\begin{cases}m . & \text { he. } \\ f . & \text { הִּ }\end{cases}$

Plural.




The forms included in parentheses seldom occur. A comptete view of these pronouns, with their abbreviated forms (suffives), is given at the end of $\S 33$.

## REMARKS.

## I. First Person.

1. The form 'אֲּ אָּנִי is nearly as frequent in the Old Testament as former is found in the Phœenician, but in no other of the kindred dialects;* from the latter are formed the suffixes (§ 33). In the Talmud, ©אָּ is very seldom used, and
2. The formation of the plural in this and the other persons, though analogous with that of verbs and nouns, exhibits (as also in the pronoun of other languages) much that is irregular and


[^43]addition of (fithibh). The form Tulmud ixi nlone appears.)
3. The first person alone is of the enmmon gender, because one that is present speaking needs not the distinction of gender as dues the second person addressed (in Greek, Latin, and German, the distinction is omitted here also), and, much more, the third person spoken of.

## II. Second I'erson.

 still the $n$ before the $\cap$, Arab. anta, f. anti thou, plur. antun, f. antuma yc. The essential syllable is $n \underset{T}{ } t \bar{u}$, and on it the meaning thou depends (see $\S 44,1$ ); the an prefixed is demonstrative, and gives more support to the form. Nָ without $\boldsymbol{i}$ occurs only five times, e. g. Ps. vi. 4, and each time as hethibl with the Qeri, הیָּ. As the vowels of the text belong to the Qeri (§ 17), the

The feminine form was originally pronounced (with the feminine designation '-, probably
 This form is still found in a few instances (Judg. xvii. 2, 1 Kings xiv. 2). Some forms in the inflexion of the verb are derived from it (see § 44, Rem. 4, §59, 1). The final is sound, however, was gradually given up (in Syriac also it was at length only written, not pronounced), and the " therefore dropped, so that the Jewish critics, even in the above-mentioned passages, place in the


 Chal. junch, a form which lies at the foundation of some verbal inflexions, $\S 59,1$, and the full final vowel giving place to the obtuse sound of $e$, somewhat in the manner of the third person. 㶽 is found only once (Eze. xxxiv. 31, where another reading is 㸾), and
 For the ending $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{T}}$, see No. 7 .

## III. Third Person.

6. The $\mathbb{N}$ was, perhaps, heard at the end of $\mathbb{N} \boldsymbol{N}$ and $\mathbb{N}$, as a kind of half rowel, húa, hia, as $e$ in German die (old Germ. thiu, thia), sic, wie. A trace of this is also preserved in the Arabic, as husea, hiya, in the common dialect húa, hia.

The masculine Nis of common gender in the Pentateuch,* in which it is used also for she. (Sce §2.3.) The punctators, however, whenever it stands for $\mathbf{N}$. of this form (NT), and require it to be read (comp. § 17). It is, howerer, to be sounded rather according to the old form $\mathbf{N} \rightarrow$.
7. The plural forms and an are obtained from and กనָ. In Arab., where they are pronounced hum, Iumna, the obscure vowel sound is retained, for which Seghol stands also in the suffixes 0 and in (comp. § 27, Rem. 4, b). The $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{T}}$ in both forms (He paragogic) has a demonstrative force. In Chald. (ivin, ivạ), Arab., and Ethiop. (hium $\bar{u}$, hōmī) there is an $\hat{\delta}$ or $\hat{u}$ appended, which appears in Hebrew in the poetical forms in, in $\frac{3}{\tau}, ~ i n \frac{3}{-}(\S 58,1)$.
8. The pronouns of the third person, הִיא, הִ, הּ, are also demonstratice pronouns (see § 122, 1).

[^44]Sect. 33.

## THE SUFFIX PRONOUN.

1. The full and separate forms of the pronoun, as given in the foregoing section, express only the nominative:* the accusative and genitive, on the contrary, are expressed by shortened forms or fragments, which are joined to the end of verbs, nouns, and particles (suffix pronouns, usually suffixes); e. g. הו and i his (from


Instances of the same construction occur in Greek, Latin, and German, as matin pov for marip $\dot{\epsilon} \mu \mathrm{ov}$, Lat. eccum in Plautus for ecce cum, Germ. du hast's for du hust es [comp. rulgar English give' $m$ for give them]. In Hebrew this is done systematically, as in Egyptian, Ifungarian, and some other languages.
2. In respect to the cases which these suffixes denote, let it be remarked-
a) When joined to verbs, they denote the accusative (but comp. § 121, 4), קוְטִּ I have killed him.
b) When joined to substantives, they denote the genitive (like $\pi a \tau i f p$ mov, pater ejus), and then serve as possessive pronouns, as ' horse (so that it is as much equus ejus as equus suus, comp. $\$ 124,1, b$ ).
c) When joined to particles, they denote either the genitive or the accusative, according as the particle includes the meaning of a noun or a verb, c. g. 乌ֻ (prop. my vicinity) with me, like mea caussa, on the contrary ' הִּנְ behold me.
d) The dative and ablative of the pronom are expressed by combining the prepositions that are signs of these cases (? sign of the dative, in, ip from, § 102) with the suffixes, as th to him, ī in him, from you.
3. Some of these suffixes are probably derived from forms of the separate pro-
 thou. This applies also to the afformatives of the rerb ( $\$ 44,1$ ).
4. The suffix of the verb (the accusative), and the suflix of the noun (the

[^45]genitive), are mostly the sume in form, but sometimes they are different, e. or or me, '-my.

The following Paradigm gives a view of all the forms of the pronoun, both separate and suffix ; more explanation about the suffix of the verb and the mode of attaching it to the verb will be found in $\S \$ 58$, cte., about the suffix of the noun in $\S 91$, about prepositions with suffixes in $\S 103$.


Sect. 34.

## THE DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUN.


The feminine form תNi is for $\boldsymbol{N}$ see $\S 80$ ), and the forms 4 , $\boldsymbol{i}$, $\boldsymbol{i}$, which are both of rare occurrence, come from $\boldsymbol{\pi}$
 are plural according to use, and not according to grammatical inflexion. The form לs occurs only in the Pentateuch and 1 Chron. xx. 8 , and there always with the
 appendage, as in $\boldsymbol{H}$ (§ָּ

Another secondary form of the demonstrative is $k$, used only in poetry. It stands mostly for the relative (like that for who), and it is used alike for all numbers and genders, like (\$ 36 ).

Rem. 1. This pronoun receives the article ( adjectives, $\S 111,2$, and $\S 122,1$. There are, besides, some peculiar forms in which $b$ is inserted after the article, הַּלָּ Gen. xxiv. 65 ; xxxvii. 19 ; usually masc. Judges vi. 20 ; 1 Sam. xiv. 1; xvii. 26 ; but fem. in 2 Kings iv. 25. In Arabic there is a corresponding form alladhi as relative pronoun.
2. Some other pronominal stems occur among the particles, $\S 99$, etc.

Sect. 35.

## THE ARTICLE.

Originally the article was a demonstrative pronoun, akin to the pronoun of the 3rd person. It nowhere occurs in Hebrew as an independent word, but always in close connexion with the word before which it stands. Its usual form is in, with a short sharp-spoken $\breve{a}$ and a doubling of the following consonant (by Duyhess


When, however, the article $\uparrow$ ntands before a word beginning with a guttural,

[^46]which (according to $\S 22,1$ ) does not ardmit of Daghesh forte, then the short and sharp $\bar{a}$ (P'athach) is lengethened into $\bar{a}$ (Qamets) or $\ddot{u}$ (Seghol).

But to be more minute:-

1) Before the weakest gittural $\mathfrak{N}$ and before $7(\$ 22,5)$ the vowel of the article


2) For the other gutturals it is in general the rule, that the stronger the guttural the firmer is the syllable of the article, both as to its sharpness and its short $\breve{a}$. but there are then two cases to be distinguished:-
A) When the guttural is followed by any other vowel than $\bar{a}, \bar{\mp}$ or $\bar{o}, \bar{r}$, then a) before $\pi$ and (as being stronger), the article regularly remains $\boldsymbol{\pi}$, as


 Prov. ii. 17.)
B) But when the guttural is followed by $\bar{a}, \bar{\tau}$, then $a$ ) before $\bar{T}_{\Gamma}$ and $\underset{\sim}{y}$ the article is always $\underset{T}{ }$, provided it stands immediately before the tone-syllable, else it is


 the contrary הַחְבְׂה according to A, a.)
It may be added, that gender and number (just as in our language) have no influence on the form of the article.

Rem. 1. The form of the Hebrew article neems to have originated from the $h$ of whicl is
 accounted for from the enclitical nature of the article. In the Arabic it sounds $\$ \mathbf{N}$ (pronounced hul by the Beduins**), the ל of which is likewise assimilated, at least so before all letters sounding like $s$ and $t$, and before $l$. $n$, and $r$; c. g. al-Koran, but as-sana (by the Bed. has-sana), e. g. Heb. תhe year. The Arabic article itself occurs also in the Old Testament in the Arabic name
 and according to others also in Drpsw the people, Pr. xxx. 31.
N.13. 2. When the prepositions $\underset{\sim}{7}\},$, and the of comparison ( $\$ 102$ ) come before the article, the $\pi$ is dropped by contraction, and the preposition takes its points ( $\$ 19,3, b$, and $\S 23,5$ ), as
 however (which is less closely connected with the word), the $n$ very often remains, as arim. xxxix. 11, but also Dand Gen. xxr. 31, 33; else it seldon remains except in the later books, as

[^47]解 2 Chron. x. 7. (Yet see 1 Sam. xiii. 21 ; Ps. xxxvi. 6.) With ?, which is in its conception still less closely connected with the word, the $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ always remains, as

Sect. 36.

## THE REIATIVE PIRONOUN.

It is the same for both genders and numbers, who who which. In the later books, and also in some of the earlier, viz., in Canticles constantly and in Judges occasionally, instead of this full form we have $\because \forall \%$ (with the $\mathbb{N}$ elided and the 7 assi-

 of expressing the cases of the relative, see $\S 123,1$.

Nַּ in is used also as a conjunction, like quorl, ö öt, that. Closely connected with it in meaning is

Sect. 37.

## THE INTERROGATIVE AND INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. The interrogative pronoun is who? (of persons), and what? (of things).

The pointing of $\boldsymbol{n}$ with Qamets is seldom found except in pause and before $\mathbf{N}$ and 7 , as
 commonly written in close connexion with the following word: a) - whith Maqqeph and Daghesh forte conjunctive $(\$ 20,2)$, as 隊- what to thee? and even in one word, as to you? Is. iii. 15 , $\boldsymbol{H}$ ֶ what is this? Ex. iv. $2 ; b$ ) before the harder gutturals $\pi, \pi, y$, it likewise receives Pathach with the Daghesh implied in the guttural (§22,1), Nino Num. xiii. 18 : c) when the guttural has Quncts, it receives Seghol (according to § 27, Rem. 2), as what hast thou done? This Seghol stands also occasionally before letters that are not guttural, as "מֶה קוֹ what voice, ctc.? 1 Sam. iv. 6; 2 Kings i. 7 , but only when the tone of the clause is far removed from the word; moreover, in the form ה in the note).
2. Both and accur also as an indefinite pronoun, in the sense of whocrer, whatever.

[^48]
## CHAPTER II.

THEVERB.

Sect. 38.
GENERAL VIETV.

1. Tile verb is, in the Ilebrew, the most elaborated part of speech as to inflexion, and also the most important, inasmuch as it mostly contains the stem of the others ( $\$ 30$ ), and its various modifications are, to a great extent, the basis of the other forms in the language.
2. Yet all verbs are not stem-words. Like nouns they may be divided, in respect to their origin, into three classes,-
a) Primitives, e. g. The to reign; בevive to sit.
 one's self, from
c) Denominatives, or those derived from nouns in the form both of the primitives
 root out and

The noun, from which the denominative verb comes, is in most cases itself derivative; e. g. $i=$ ?
 increase greatly,

A peculiar kind of secondary verbs, and at least of rather late formation in the language (hence frequent in the later dialects), are those denominatives, one of whose consonants, originally a mere
 hence again

## Sect. 39.

1. The 3 rd person Preterite of the simple form of the primitive verbs (i. e. Kal, see No. 4) is generally regarded as the stem-form or ground-form of the verb, as קָטֶ he has killed, hָּ he was heavy.* From this are derived the other persons of the Preterite and the Participle. Another, more simple still, is the Infinitive, as R, also phe, with which the Imperative generally agrees in form, and from which is derived the Future.
[^49]The first ground-form, of two syllables (Arab. qatala, qatila, qatula), may be called the concrete, and the second, which is generally monosyllabic (Arab. qutl, qitl, qutl), the abstract. 'The same analogy prevails in the division of nouns into abstract and conerete.

In verbs whose sceond radical is 1 , the full stem appears only in the sceond form; e. g. בוּשi, of which the 3rd person Pret. is $\underset{\sim}{\text { ung. }}$.
2. From the simple form of the primitives, viz., Kal, are formed, according to an unvarying analogy in all verbs, the verba derivativa, each distinguished by a specific change in the form of the stem, with a corresponding definite change in its signifi-

 to judge, are regarded as new derivative verbs; e. g. to fall, to fell; lactēre, to suck, lactāre, to give suck; jacěre, to throw, jacēre, to lie; rivo a to be born, yevví to bear. But in Hebrew, where these formations are beyond comparison more regular than e. g. in the German, Latin, and Greek, they are called, since the time of Reuchlin, conjugations (Heb. and both in the grammar and lexicon are always treated of in comnexion as parts of the same verb.*
3. The changes of the primitive form consist partly in varying its vowels, or
 to lie, to lay; to fall, to fell); partly in the addition of formative letters or syllables (נִקטְ, hepu; comp. to speak; to bespeak; to count, to recount; to bid, to forbid);


In the Aramæan this is effeeted less by the change of vowels than by the addition of formative syllables; so that, for instance, all the passives are formed as reflexives by the prefix syllable תN, nş. The Arabic is rich in both methods, while the Hebrew holds also here the middle place $(\S 1,6)$.
4. Grammarians differ as to the mumber and arrangement of these conjugations. The common practice, however, of giving to them still the old technical designations, prevents any error. The simple form is called Kal (לָ light, because it has no formative additions); the others (כְּרֵּים heavy, because burdened with formative additions) derive their names from the Paradigm used by the old Jewish grammarians,

[^50]themselves from their actives by the obscure vowels. The most common conjugatons (including leal) are the five following; but few verbs, however, exhibit them all :-

Active.

1. Wal.
2. Niphal.
3. Piël.
4. Hiphil.
5. Hithpaël. Sup to kill.

Sup u to kill one's self. hep to kill many, to massacre.
 beni to kill one's self.

Passive.

(wanting.)
(very rare.)
Dual. ל op
Hophal. הָקטְּל
Hothpaal. דָּקְקַּטֵּל

There are several other less frequent conjugations, of which some, however, are more common than these in the kindred languages; and in the irregular verb in Hebrew they sometimes take the place of the usual conjugations ( $\$ 55$ ).

In Arabic there is a greater variety of forms, and their arrangement more appropriate. Arranged after the Arabic manner, the Hebrew conjugations would stand thus :-1. Kiel. 2. Piël and Pal. 3. Poël and Foal ( $\$ 55,1$ ). 4. Hiphil and Mophal. 5. Hithpaël and IIothpaal. 6. Hithpoël (§ 55).
7. Niphul. 8. Wanting in Hebrew. 9. Pile l. The more appropriate division is into three classes;
a) The intensive Piet, with the analogous forms derived from it ; b) The causative Hiphil, and its analogous forms (Shaphel, Tiphel); c) The reflexive and passive Niphal.

## Sect. 40.

1. The Hebrew verb is indebted, for whatever copiousness it exhibits, chiefly to these conjugations or derivative verbs. In moods and tenses it is poor, having only two tenses (Preterite and Future*), an Imperative, an Infinitive (with two forms), and a Participle. All other relations of time, absolute and relative, must be expressed by these, either alone (hence the diversity in the senses of the same form, $\S 125$, etc.) or in syntactical connexion with other words. The jussive and optative are sometimes indicated by peculiar forms of the Future (see § 48).

In the Germanic languages, also, there are distinct forms for only two tenses (the Present and Imperfect). In the formation of all the others auxiliary verbs are employed. Comp. Grimm's d. Gramme. 2. A. 1, 135.
2. In the inflexion of the Pret. and Fut. by persons, the Hebrew differs from the Western languages, having in most cases distinct forms for both genders, as in the personal pronoun, which is incorporated in the forms of these tenses.

[^51]As a preliminary view for the beginner, we exhibit here in a Table the formative syllables (afformatives and preformatives) of both tenses. Fuller instruction concerning them will be found in $\$ \$ 44-47$ in connexion with the Paradigms.

|  | Preterite. |
| :---: | :---: |
| Sing. |  |
| 3 m . |  |
| $3 f . \quad$ ก- |  |
| 2 m . |  |
| $2 f$. $\quad$, |  |
| 1 c . 唃. |  |


| Plur. |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| 3 c. | 1 |
| 2 m | -8\% |
| $2 f$. | 淗 |
| 1 c . | 13 |

## Future.

## Sing.

| $\begin{aligned} & 3 \mathrm{~m} . \\ & 3 f . \\ & 2 \mathrm{~m} . \\ & 2 f . \\ & 1 \mathrm{c.} \end{aligned}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |



Sect. 41.
The general analogy in the inflexion of verbs, which is normally exhibited in the stems with strong and firm consonants, holds good for all verbs; and the deviations which occur from this model of the strong and regular verb, are only modifications owing to the peculiar nature and the feebleness of many consonants, viz.-
a) To the presence of a guttural as one of the stem-letters or radicals, which occasions various vowel changes according to § 22 (guttural cerb, $\$ \S 62-65$ ).
b) To the falling away of a strong stem-letter by assimilation or contraction (contracted* rerb, $\S$ §ָ $\ddagger$. 66,67 ), as
c) To the presence of a feeble letter as one of the radicals ( $\$ \S 23,24$ ), so that many changes occur through its commutation, omission, or quiescence (quiescent


The letters of the old Paradigms the first, $y$ the second, and $b$ the third. Hence the expressions, verb $\mathfrak{N}$ for a verb whose first radical is $\boldsymbol{\aleph}$ (prime radicalis $\mathfrak{\aleph}$ ); verb ith for one whose third radical is $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ (tertice radiealis $n$ ); verb ע ע ע doublecl) for one whose second and third radicals are the same (medice radicalis geminat(c).

[^52]
## I. THE REGULAR VERB.

Sect. 42.
As the rules for the inflexion of the regular verb apply, with only occasional modifications, to all the irregular verbs, it will be most convenient, and it will also exhibit the subject in the clearest light to the learner, if we present, while treating of the former, whatever belongs to the general analogy of the verb.

$\dagger$ [Or jussive, according to Rülliger, and so throughout ail the following Tables.-Edrr.]

This Paradigm (together with the Table of the formative syllables in $\S 40,2$ ) exhibits a complete view of the usual and normal forms. Full explanations are given in the following sections (43-55), where every subject is elucidated on its first occurrence; thus, under Fial the inflexions of the Preterite, and of the Future and its modificatiens, are minutely explained with reference also to the other conjugations; and under the regular verb are given the forms and significations of conjugations which apply also to the irregular, etc.

## A. THE SINPLE FORM, OR KAL.

## Sect. 43.

## ITS FORM AND SIGNIFICATION.

1. The common form of the 3rd person Pret. in Kal is $\operatorname{cop}_{\text {, }}$, with a short $A$ (Pathach), in the second syllable, especially in transitice verbs. There is also a form with $E$ (Tsere), and another with $O$ (Cholem), in the second syllable; the two latter are usually found with intransitive meaning, and serve for expressing states and qualities, c. g. פָּ to be heavy, the transitive and the intransitive, exist together, as טָּ N゙ST to be full (comp. §47, Rem. 2), yet also with the same signification for both forms, as

A verb middle $E$ will be found in the Paradigm by the side of a verb middle $A$.* The example selected shows, at the same time, the effect of inflexion on Daghesh lene in the middle stem-letter.

Rem. 1. The vowel of the second syllable is the principal vowel, and hence it distinguishes between the transitive and intransitive. The pretonic Qamets in the first syllable has little
 falls away in the root itself, as ?ְְטְ,
 ก

Sect. 44.

## PRETERITE OF KAL AND ITS INFLENION.

1. The inflexion of the Preterite, in respect to person, number, and gender, is effected by the addition of fragments of the personal pronouns (afformatices) to the end of the ground-form. In explaining this comexion, we may treat the


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 $\because$, the simple germ of the pronoun, united with the demonstrative sound $n$, by which the afformative is at once distinguished from the suffix forms ' $\quad$ and $\because$ - (as if one would form אֲנִ $\pi-$ (originally $\pi_{-}$, comp. Rem. 4) is a designation of the feminine (as in the noun 580,2 ), and 9 (orig. $i=$ ) is a sign of the plural.

In the Indo-Germanic tongues, the inflexion by persons originated in the same manner, by appending pronominal forms, as is shown in Sanskrit and Greek; e. g. from the stem as (to be)
 asi, Dor. ì $\sigma \sigma i '$ thon art, where $\sigma \iota$ is nearly equal to $\sigma v$; Sanskr. asti, è $\sigma \tau i$ he is, where $\tau i$ corresponds to the pronoun $\tau$ ó, etc. ; [and this is shown better still in Welsh, e. g. wyff, I am (with ending $f$ from fil ), $\quad$ ryt thou art (ending $t$ from $t i$ thou), yw he is (no ending as in Hebrew), $y m$ we are (ending $m$ from $n i$ we), ych you are (ending ch from chwi you), ynt they are (ending $n t$ from hucynt they)]. But the etymology in all these languages [except in Welsh] is more obliterated than in Hebrew. This is partly true also of inflexion in the other Shemitic languages; e. g. 1st pers. Arab. qataltü, Syr. qetleth, where the characteristic $i$ is wholly lost.
2. In respect to vowel changes, the analogy of the 3 fem. sing. . hy the 3 masc. plur. . the first and second persons. $\dagger$ Only syllable, and, in consequence, Sheva under the first radical ( $\$ 27,3$ ).
N.B. Rem. 1. Verbs middle $E$, falling back in their inflexion to the type of verbs middle $A$, generally lose the $E$ ' somind, which passes over into Pathach, as the Paradigm shows. The original $E$ appears, however, regularly in the feeble stems $x^{\circ}$ ( $\$ 74$, Rem. 1); in strong stems only in pause,
 Job sli. 15.
2. In some feeble stems middle $A$, the $a$ under the second radical sometimes passes over into $(-)$ or $(-)$, when the syllable is closed and toneless, and the first radical has not a full vowel

 Such forms must not be considered verbs middle $E$ : the weakening of the yowel is owing simply
 T. יָ. Sce § 64, Rem. 1 , and $\S 69$, Rem. 4.




[^54]4. Unfrequent forms:* Sing. 3 fem. in $\pi=$ (as in Arab. 庣thiop. Aram.) c. g. Mes Deut. xxxii. 36. Before suffixes this is the prevailing form ( $\$ 59,1, a$ ) common also in stems ish and
 Gen. iii. 12. This occurs often.-2 fem. sometimes has still a Yodh at the end, especially in Jere-
 what is said of the pronoun in § 32 , Rem. 4). With this is connected the form



 Nish
N.B. 5. In connexion with the afformatives, $\underset{T}{ }, 12$, the tone is on the penultima, and the word is Milél; with the others it is Mitra ( $\$ \mathbf{1 5}, 2$ ). The place of the tone is shifted, a) in several persons by the pause ( $\$ 29,4$ ), where it is moved backwards, and at the same time the vowel of the
 Preterite, where it is moved forwards one syllable (§ 49, 3).

## Sect. 45.

## THE INFINITIVE.

1. The Infinitive, originally a verbal substantive, has two forms-a shorter and a longer form. The shorter (Infinitice construct), in Kal hep, is the most usual; it can take the pronominal suffixes, can be followed both by the nominative of the subject and the accusative of the object ( $\$ 133$ ), and may be preceded by prepositions, as hop? to kill ( $\$ 132,2$ ). The longer form (Infinitive absolute or empleatic), in Kal hiop, is used when the action of the verb is presented by itself, without direct connexion with other words; and most frequently, when the lufnitive is added to the finite verb, as an adverbial accusative, for the sake of emphasis. The first is the original form, and has retained more of the character and flexibility of a verbal noun; the second is somewhat more inflexible, and expresses rather the abstract idea of the verb. Sce full explanations in the Syntax (S§ $131-183$ ) $\dagger$
2. Between biop and bip, there is this difference in the form, that the latter has Cholem unchangeable, lut the former has Cholem changeable (hence with sulf". ? hop). In the derived conjugations (except Hiphil and Mophat), the Infin. ulsol. has also generally such a firm $\hat{0}$, although the Infin. constr. has other vowels, e. g. in Piel we have biep besides לep.
[^55]Besides bup, the Infin. Kal has also the following unusual forms:-
a)
 Bx. xxxvi. 2, חקמקלה to pily Eze. xvi. 5. (As a verbal noun, also, the Infin. may take the feminine ending.)

'These unfrequent forms are in more common use as verbal noums (§ 84, Nos. 10, 11, 14).
3. A sort of Gerum is formed in Hebrew by the Inf. constr. with the preposi-


The ? is here so closely connected, that it constitutes part of the grammatical form, as appears from the syllable-division and the use of Daghesh lene, viz., ל? he lin-pöl (§ 28, 1), so also liq-tôl,
 prepositions and are conceived to be less closely connected with the Infinitive, and by way of cxception also with ל?, as לִלְתוֹש וְלִנחוֹץ Jer. i. 10.

Sect. 46.

## THE IMPERATIVE.

1. The leading form of the Imperative hip (hop) is the same which lies also at the basis of the Future ( $\S 47$ ), and which, when viewed as an Infinitive ( $\$ 45$ ), is likewise allied to the noun. $\dagger$ It expresses only the second person, but has inflexions for the feminine and the plural. For the third person it has no form (see $\S 130$, Rem. 2), but this is expressed by the Future in the jussive ( $\$ 127,3, c$ ), and even the second must be expressed by the jussive form, when a negative pre-
 have no Imperative, $\ddagger$ but the reflexive Niphal and Hithpaël have.
2. The inflexion is quite similar to that of the Future, and it will be comprehended from the explanations given below, in §47, 2. Like the Future, the Imperative also has a lengthened and a shortened form, the first in the manner of the cohortative, the second after the analogy of the jussive (see $\S 48,5$ ).

Rem. 1. Besides the form לְט, there is also one with Pathach, as (as in the Inf. and Fut.) 2 Sam. xiii. 5; but Pathach in

[^56]2. Less frequently there is found in the first syllable of the feminine and plural form an $\delta$
 Judges ix. 10.
3. In the form ${ }^{-1}$,
 shortening is probably owing to the guttural.

SEC'T. 47.

## The future and its inflexion.*

1. Fragments of the personal pronoun are employed in the inflexion of the Future as well as of the Preterite; but in the Future these fragments are pre-fixed (preformatives) $\dagger$ to the stem in the abstract form (bep). These formative particles, inasmuch as they stand before the verbal form, the tendency of which is to have the tone at the end, are much more abbreviated than the afformatives of the
 with a very short vowel, viz., vocal Shera. But as these are not always sufficient to mark, at the same time, the distinction of gender and of number, the defect is supplied by additions at the end. Comp. the Table, $\S 40,2$.
2. The derivation and signification both of the preformatives and afformatives, are still in most cases clear.
 person required no addition at the end.
 the feminine, as in 'תּ thou (feminine, see §32, Rem. 4). In the 2nd pers. plur. the (more fully $\uparrow$, see Rem. 4) in ${ }^{4}$, is the sign of the plural as in the 3 rl person and already in the Preterite ( $(44,1$ ), and is here appropriated to the

[^57]


In the 3 rd person hop:, the 'camot be so casily explained, as no corresponding pronoun can be fonnd for it in the Ilebrew; the ' may, however, stand as a stronger (rmsonant for I (from Nin), properly bop?, because 1 at the begiming of a word Wats mostly avoided in Hebrew (comp.
 are preciscly the same as the 2 ad person, is probably allied to the feminine-ending, $\Omega$ - [or it may come, as Gesenius thought, from NThe, by changing in into $\pi$, which is often done].
3. In the course of inflexion the final vowel is dropped in some forms, while in other's it is retained. In this respect the analogy hep': is followed by all the other



Rem. 1. The final $\bar{o}$ (Cholem) is only tonc-long ( $\S 9$, No. 10, 3), as in the Infin. and Imper. Hence, a) The examples in which it is written fully are very rare, and are to be regarded as exceptions. b) Before Maqqeph it becomes Qamets-chatuph; e. g. ם Josh. viii. 32. c) It becomes vocal Shera before the afformatives ${ }^{\circ}-$ and 4 . In the few instances in which it remains before such afformatives, the pointing becomes $:$, because it stands close before the pause, c. g. ${ }^{\text {I }}$ ט:
N.B. 2. This Cholem is confined almost exclusively to verbs middle $A$, like hט్pp, Intrunsitive verbs (mildlle $E$ and $O$ ) take ă (Pathach) in the Future, as לat to be great, Fut. ל? small, Fut. יְְי. Sometimes both forms exist together; the Fut. with $\bar{o}$ is then transitive, and
 short. So also ن̌iלָ, Fut. ò, to subdue; Fut. ĕ, to be subdued; Ex. xvii. 13; Job xiv. 10. More
 irregular verbs, the feeble $\bar{e}$ ( 7 'sere) is also found in the final syllable, as in? for fer will give. These three forms of the Future are called Future O, Future A, Future E.
3. For the 3 ral plur. fem. לת
 comp. Gen. xxx. 38; 1 Sam. vi. 12. In screral instances perly for the 3 rel pers. singular, Ex. i. 10 ; Judg. v. 26 (and, according to some, Job xvii. 16; Is. xxviii. 3). (In the vulgar Arabic, necul, properly uee eat, is the common form for $I$ eat; and in the F'rench patois, $j^{\prime}$ arons for $j^{\prime}$ ai). -In the l'entateuch ${ }_{\uparrow} \boldsymbol{i}(n \bar{a})$ occurs in place of ${ }_{\mathrm{T}}$, especially after J'ar contersive ( $\$ 49,2$ ) ; e. g. Fx. i. 18, 19 ; xv. 20, as in Arabic nă. A still more abbreviated form of this termination is found in the Imp. ( $£ 46$, Rem. 3). -Once occurs (Eze. xvi. 50) the anomalous form
N.B. t. The plural forms ending in a appear also not unfrequently with the fuller ending it,

[^58]most commonly with obvious stress on the word at the end of a period, where the rowel of the

 $29,30-32$; Is. viii. 12 ; 1 Sam. ix. 13. But the preference for this form at the close of a period
 original ending $i$ is common in Aramæan and Arabic; yet in the vulgar Arabic it is shortened. Of the Fut. with $\mathbb{N}$ appended, Nשׂ. Jer. x. 5 , is the only example.
 Aramæan and Arabic. The $1 \%$ - here is scarcely original; probably it arose from imitation of the plural-ending $\dagger$. See examples in 1 Sam. i. 14; Ruth ii. 8, 21 ; iii. 4, 18.
6. In Pause, the vowel of the second syllable, if it had become Sheva, is restored and takes the


Sect. 48.
SHORTENING AND LENGTHENING OF THE FUTURE AND IMPERATIVE.
(Jussive and Cohortative Forms.)

1. For the insufficiency of specific forms to express the relative Tenses and the Moods in the Hebrew and its kindred dialects, a small compensation is made by changes in the form of the Future, to which a certain signification is either exclusively or principally appropriated.
2. We must distinguish, accordingly, between the common form of the Future and two others, viz., a lengthened form (with a cohortative force) and a shortened form (with a jussive force). The lengthened Future, however, occurs only in the 1st person (with unimportant exceptions), while its shortened form is confined to the 2 nd and 3rd persons. In Hebrew, however, the short-spoken Jussive is not always orthographically distinguished from the common Indicative form of the Future.

In Arabic the distinction is always clear. Besides the common indicative Future yúqtulu, it has, a) a Subjunctive, yáqtula; b) a Jussive, yáqtul; and c) a so-called Future energic, yáqtulan, which is nearly related to the Heb. Cohortative.
3. The characteristic of the Cohortative is a long $a, ~--$ (He paragogic), attached
 in all classes of regular and irregular verbs (except in the passives), and has the tone wherever it is taken by the afformatives 9 and $\quad-$, hence it affects the fimal

[^59]
 mention of.

In a very few instances the more obscure ending $n-$ takes the place of $n-$ (according to $§ 27$,
lem. 4), e. g. 1 Sam. xxvii. 15 ; P's. xx. 4. As rarely is it attached to the 3rd person (Is. v. 19;
F\%e. xxiii. $20 ;$ l's. xx. 4). The 2nd person, however, receives it in the Imperative. See No. 5 .
M-, as an accusative-ending to a nom, denotes motion or tendency towards a place ( $\$ 90,2$ ), and after the same analogy the Cohortative with this ending expresses effort and the direction of the will to an action. Accordingly it is used especially to express excitement of one's self, determination, wish (as Optative), etc. (see § 128).
4. The Jussive occurs only in the 2nd and 3rd persons. Its form is orthographically often the same as that of the Indicative, e. g. bop? as Ind. he will kill, as Juss. let him kill. But at times the shortening is clearly indicated, as will be shown in every case under the conjugations. In the regular verb it is confined, as a distinct form, to Hiphil, as Juss. hep for Ind. ליקpי. It is found in Kal and
 of verbs ith, where it consists in the removal (apocopé) of the ending in-; e. g. לגֶּ". for Mence the term, Future apocopated, is frequently applied to this form.) But in all cases the plural forms of the Jussive coincide with the common, only that the ending if cannot occur. Also the 2 nd pers. sing. fem. sounds like
 they have pronominal suffixes, e. g. 'תְִּּ Jussive in xli. 8.

In signification this form is similar to the other, with some modification occasioned by difference of person. In general it expresses commarid and wish, and stands also in conditional sentences (§128).
5. The persons of the Imperative, as it is allied in form and meaning to the Future, are also lengthened (by $\Pi_{\tau}^{-}$) and shortened, in a manner perfectiy analogous. So also the Arabic has an Imperativus energicus. In most conjugations only one of these forms is found, in others both together. The lengthened $I \mathrm{mp}$. occurs, e. g. in Kal of the regular verb, as $I m p$. in verbs ith, as har for ה. The signification of these forms is not always so strongly marked as in the Future. The longer form, however, is often emphatic, as alpand up, קוּקוֹה up! 永give, give!

Se:ct. 49.

## PRETERITE AND FUTURE WITII VAV CONVERSIVE.

1. The use of the two tenses, as will be shown more fully in the Syntax ( $\$ \S 126$, 127), is by no means confined to the expression of the past and the future. One of the most striking peculiarities in their use, and, indeed, in the Hebrew diction generally, is this: that in continued narrations of the past, only the first verb stands in the Preterite, the others being in the future form; and, on the contrary, in continued descriptions of the future, the first verb is in the Future, while the rest are in the Preterite form. Gen. i. 1: In the beginning created (Pret.) God the heavens and the earth. 3 v . And said (Fut.) God, Let there be light, and there was (Fut.) light. 4 v . And God saw (Fut.), etc. Just the reverse in Is. vii. 17: Jehovah will bring (Fut.) upon thee, and upon thy people, and upon thy futher's house, days, such as have not come since, etc. 18 v. And it will happen (Pret. וְהָּיָה) on that day . . . . 19 v . And they will come (Pret.). This progress of time, this succession of thought, is usually indicated by the Vav copulative, which, howerer, in this case, partly, receives itself a somewhat different form, and partly affects the form of the Pretcrite and Future to which it is prefixed.*
2. The Vav conversive of the Future is the most important. This $a$ ) is regularly prefixed with Pathach and a Daghesh forte in the next letter, as bipp:l and he killed, but to the 1 st person sing. with Qamets (according to $\S 22,1$ ), as and I liilled [see another exception with Daghesh forte omitted, as in $\S 20,3, b] ; b$ ) it takes a shortened form of the Future, when that exists (comp. $\S 48,4$ ), e. g. in Hiphil לưplol (§ 53, Rem. 4), and often at the same time draws the tone back to the penultima, as Mis, shortened risur, with Vav comersive תing (and lie died), § 67 , Rem. 2 and $7 ; \S 68,1 ; \S 69$, Rem. $3 ; \S 71 ; \S 72$, Rem. 4 and 7 ; $\S 73$, Rem. $2 . \dagger$ Yet it is often, particularly in the later books, prefixed to the 1 st person sing. with the lengthened form in ה-, e. g. וָָּקְרְטָה and I plucked, Ezra ix. 3. See more in § 129.
[^60]This !lis, as to form, a strenthened Vuv copulutive (comp. בַּ sitions $\frac{\underset{\sim}{2}}{2}, \frac{?}{2}$, are strengethened in a similar way), in the sense of und then, and so.

The retracting of the tone is fomd also in similar comexions, like $n$ net and the shortening of the verb ut the end (upocopei) is only accidentally similar to the form of the Jussive, jet this seems to have oceasioned the growing use of the Cohortative form in the 1st person.*
3. The comterpart of Vav conversive of the Future is Vav conversive of the Preterite, which joins Preterites to a foregoing Future. In form it is the usual Vav copulutive (!), e. g. וֹריָּ (after a Fut.) and it will be; yet it has generally the effect of shifting the tone to the last syllable in those verbal forms which would otherwise have it on the penultima, $\dagger$ c. g. וֶהלֶ?
 Sce more on the use of the Preterite in § 126.

This shifting forward of the tone does not always take place, and the exceptions are sometimes



Sect. 50.

## THE PARTICIPLE.

1. Kal has two forms of the Participle, viz., an active, called also Pôel (īx), and a passive, or Pā̄ll ( form of לטֶ.

In the Aramæan the passives of Piël and Hiphil are in like manner lost, except in the Participles.
2. The form of the Participle active of Kal in the intransitive verbs mid. $E$, and mid. O, coincides with the form of the 3rd person sing. of the Preterite, as

[^61] Niphal, $\S 51,1$. But the Participle in verbs mid. A, takes the form of bup, the $\hat{o}$ of which has sprung from $\hat{a}$, qôtcl from qâtel (§9, No. 10, 2). The form $\begin{aligned} & \text { tọT } \\ & \text { is in }\end{aligned}$ common use only as a verbal noun ( $\S 84,1$ ). The inflexion of the Participle in Pië, Miphil, Hithpaël follows a different method.
3. Participles form their feminine and plural like other nouns ( $\$ \S 87,94$ ).
 2 Kings viii. 21, and the prop. n. ל 1 Chron. xxvii. 30. Many reckon here also 1 Is. xxix. 14 ; xxxviii. 5 ; but this is much rather $3 \operatorname{sing}$. futt. Hiphil of ${ }^{1}$ Is. xxviii. 16. The form ofin Is. xli. 7, for ohin, is explained by $\S 29,3, b$.
2. The Participle in the passive form has not unfrequently an active signification, especially when it belongs to an intransitive verb, which cannot take a passive meaning. Compare in Finglish, aged, fled. Thus, הָּ means holding (not held), Cant, iii. 8; חַּ Comp. the deponent verbs in Latin.

## B. DERIVED CONJUGATIONS.

Sect. 51.

## N I PHAL.

1. The full characteristic of this conjugation is the syllable (in the corresponding seventl conjugation in Arab. $\underset{\sim}{\text { Pִ }}$ ) prefixed to the ground-form. This characteristic appears only in the Inf. constr. . הun, which is contracted from .הנקטְל . With this are connected the Imp., which has the same form, and the Fut.
 only Num remains as the characteristic, hence נִקט? The same applies to the Participle, which is distinguished from the Preterite only by the long ( $\left(\begin{array}{rl}\text { ) as }\end{array}\right.$
 of Kal.

Niphal may be distinguished in the Pret. and Part. by the Nun prefixed; in the Imp. Inf., and Fut., by the Daghesh in the first stem-letter. The same marks are found in the irregular verbs, except that, where the first stem-letter is a guttural, Daghesh forte must be omitted (§ 63, 4). To compensate for this omission, the preceding vowel is made long ( $\$ 22,1$ ).
2. The significations of Niphal. It is similar to the Greek middle roice, and
 фu入á $\sigma \sigma \epsilon \sigma \theta a u$,
 one's self, to bewail ; comp. ódúpeotal, lamentari, contristari. b) Next, it irequently
expresses reciprocal action, as from to judge, luw ; ${ }^{\prime} \stackrel{y}{V}$, to counsel, Niph. to consult toyether ; comp. the middle and deponent verbs
 Hithpaiel ( $\$ 54,3, c$ ) and the Greek middle, the signification of the active, with the addition of self, Lat. sibi, for one's self, e. g. לִִuְ to ask for one's self (1 Sam. xx.
 Here, instead of the accusative (se), the remoter object (usually expressed by the dative sibi) lies in the idea of the conjugation. d) It is often also passive of Kal, e. g. and Hiphil, when Kal is intransitive or not in use, e. g. To to be in honour, Piël to honour, Niph. to be honoured, כָּדַר in Piël to conceal, Hiph. to make disappear, to destroy, Niph. passive of both: and in this case its meaning may arain coincide with Kal (הָ Kinl. and Niph. to be sick), and even take an accusative (§ 138,2, Rem. 1).

Examples of denominatives are, (latum fieri Job xi. 12, (from לֵבָּ heart).

The older Hebrew grammarians have represented Niphal as the proper passive of Kal. This representation is decidedly incorrect; for Niphal has not the characteristics of the other passives. There are still found in Kal traces of an early passive form ( $\$ 50,1$ ), and the Arabic has an independent conjugation, corresponding with Niphal (inqatala), which has its own passive; nay, in Hebrew itself, there is probably a trace of the passive of Niphal in the form לָּנְ, Is. lix. 3 ; Lam. iv. 14. According to the usage of the language, the passive signification is certainly the predominant one; but it was first derived from the reflexive. The i? prefixed has the force of a reflexive pronoun, like ח̣̣ in Hithpaël.*
Rem. 1. The Inf. absol. ציְ Ponnects itself, in form, with the Preterite, to which it bears the

 The $i$ in the final syllable (which is essentially long) is also exhibited in this Infinitive form in lieil and Pual, and it resembles, in this respect, several Arabic Infinitives, in which there is a corresponding $a$. Moreover, the form ${ }^{2}$ is not less frequently used for the Inf. absol., e. g. Num. xv. 31; Deu. iv. 26 ; 1 Ki. xx. 19.
2. In Pause, Pathach often takes the place of Tsere in the final syllable; e. g. לand weaned Gen. xxi. 8 , as also in other cases ( $\$ 29,4$, Rem.). In the 2 nd and 3rd persons plural feminine, the form with Pathach is more common than that given in the Paradigm, e. g. they shall be remembered, Isa. 1xv. 17; but only few examples occur of these forms.
3. When the Fut., Inf., or Imp. is immediately followed by a word of one syllable, the tone is commonly drawn back upon the penultima, and consequently the final syllable, losing

[^62]the tone, takes Seghoo instead of Tsere; c. g. .a and he heard him, Gen. xxv. 21 ; comp. םencrive and God heard, 2 Sam. xxi. 14; Ezr. viii. 23. In a few words, this form with the retracted tone has become the exclusive one, as ? ? take heed, Ex. xxiii. 21 ;



Sect. 52.

## PIEL AND PUAI.

1. The characteristic of this conjugation (Arab. Conj. II. qattala, Aram. לepp) is the doulling of the middle stem-letter. In the active, the Fut. Stop: and the Part. (preformatives of which retain their original Sheva) are formed, according to the general analogy, from the Inf. and Imp. לקp. The passive (Pual) has an obscure vowel of the third class after the first stem-letter, and $\breve{a}$ (Pathach) after the second. In other respects the analogy is the same. In the inflexion of the Preterite of Piël, Pathach takes the place of Tsere in the 1st and 2nd persons


The $\square$, which occurs also in the succeeding conjugations, as the characteristic of the Part., is connected with who? in the sense of some one.

Piel and Pual are throughout distinguished by the Daghesh in the middle stem-letter. It is omitted only in the following cases: a) Always when this letter is a guttural ( $\S 64,3$ ). b) Sometimes, though rarely, when this letter has Shera ( $£ 20,3, b$ ), as

 is taken, Gen. ii. 23 ; comp. ix. 14; Judges xvi. 16. In the Fut. and Part. the She ra under the preformatives may always serve as a mark of these conjugations.
2. Significations of Piel. a) It denotes intensity and repetition (comp. the Nomina intensiva and iterativa, which are also formed by doubling the middle stem-letter, § 84, 6-9);* e. g. Sָּקָ to laugh, Piël to sport, to jest (to laugh repeatedly); many, as קָּרָ to bury (one) Gen. xxiii. 4, Piell to bury (many) 1 Kings xi. 15.

[^63](So in Syriac frequently.) This signification of Piel is found with varions shades of difference, as op to open, Piël to loose; oָּ to count, I'iël to relate. With the earer pursuit of an object is comected the influence which the sulject of it exerts upon others. Hence, b) It has a causative signification (like Hiphil), e. g. . learn, liiel to teach. It often takes the modifications expressed by, to permit, to
 in child-hearing. c) Denominatives are frequently found in this conjugation, which in general mean to make a thing (sc. that which the noun expresses), or to be in
 throw dust, to dust. It also expresses the taking away or injuring the thing or part of which the nom is the name (as in English, to beliead, to skin, to bone), e. g.
 tail, hence to rout the rear of an army; to remove the ashes. So also in verbs the origin of which cannot be traced to a noun; e. g. פִק to stone, and also to remove the stones, sc. from a field.*

The significations of the passive will present themselves spontaneously, e. g. גנָנב to steal, Piël to steal, Pual to be stolen.

In P'iell, the proper and literal signification of a word is often retained, when Kal has adopted a figurative one, the former being the stronger and more prominent idea; e. g. $\mathfrak{N}$
 rereal.

In intransitive rerbs, also, Piël occurs as an intensive form, but only in poetry, as mangi, Jer. li. 56 ; חפּפּ to be open, Is. xlviii. 8 ; 1x. 11 ; הרִּ to be drunken, Is. xxxiv. 5, 7.
N.B. Rem. 1. The Pret. Piël has frequently ( - ) in the final syllable, instead of (.), e. g. to clestroy, and in the middle of a period, when other words immediately follow; but at the end of a period,
 verbs have Seghol, as

A single instance of ( - ) in the first syllable (after the manner of the Chaldee) is found in Gen. xli. 51, בַּשִׁe to cause to forget, occasioned by the play upon the name quadriliteral
2. The Fut., Inf., and Imp., when followed by Maqqeph, generally take Seghol in the final
 paell. In the 1 st pers. sing. Fut., there occurs, besides under $\mathfrak{N}$, as
 found such forms as

[^64]3. The Inf. absol. has the special form xl. 15. But more frequently the form קer is used; e. g. Jer. xii. 17; xxxii. 33.
4. In Pual, instead of Qibbuts, is found less frequently Qamets-chatuph, e. g. קִּ Nah. ii. 4 ; comp. iii. 7; Ps. lxxii. 20 ; lxxx. 1. It is merely an orthographic variation when Shureq takes the place of Qibbuts, as Thudges xviii. 29.
5. For the Inf. abs. of Pu. there is found בide Gen. xl. 15. The Inf. constr. does not occur in the regular verb.
6. The Part. Pual sometimes occurs without the prefix $P$; it is then distinguished, like the
 מִיִּר Judges xiii. 8; also Eecles. ix. 12 ; Hos. i. 6, 8 ; Prov. xxv. 9.

Sectr. 53.

## HIPHIL AND HOPIAL.

1. The characteristic of the active is $i$ with ( - ) or ( $(-$ ) prefixed to the stem, and $\because$ inserted after the second radical. From the Inf. הַקְטִיק are formed the Fut.
 with an obscure vowel, and the second syllable has $\bar{a}$ instead of $\bar{z}$, as
 analogy. The inflexion has nothing peculiar, except that in the 1st and 2 nd pers.

 where the - is not found. It does not appear to be an essential characteristic of the form, but it has arisen out of a shorter vowel. See Rem. 1.

The marks of this conjugation are therefore, in the Pret., Imp., and Inf., the prefix is; in the Fut. and Part., the vowel under the preformatives, which in Hiphil is Pathach, in IIophal, Qibbuts or Qamets-chatuph.
2. Significations of Hiphil. It is properly causative of Kal, and in this sense is more frequently employed than Piël (§52, 2, 6), e. g. N্ָָ to go forth, Hiph. to bring out of, to lead forth; שipu to be holy, Hiph. to sanctify. When Kal is transitive, Hiph. takes two accusatives ( $\S 139,1$ ). Frequently Piël and Hiphil are both in use in the same signification, as ָָּרָ to perish, Piël and Hiph. to destroy; but generally only one of them is found, or they have some difference of signification, as כָּבָּ to be heavy, Piël to honour, Hiph. to make heary. Intransitive verbs merely become transitive, e. g. פָּטָ to bow (intrans.), Hiph. to bou, bend.

[^65]intransitive verbs. Bespecially, was any change in one's habit of bodly conceived (and very rightly tou) by the Hebrew, as the result of personal agency, and was represented, in the mode of expression, as produced by the individual himself;* e. g. 位莩, Hiph. to become fut (properly to

 riches); ulso especially to words which express the taking of a new colour, as הֶאֵּ to become red, Kato to become white, ete. Moreover, what is merely a state or condition, becomes, in the Hebrew mode of conception, an act; c. g.

 (sc.

These remarks apply also to Denominatives, i. e. the verb often expresses the idea of producing, or
 forth horns. It also expresses the actual use of a member, as in to listen (properly to make ears); $\cdots$ to chatter, to slander (after the same analogy, properly to make tongue, to use the tonguc freely).
The signification of Mophal, as of Niphal, may sometimes coincide with that of Kial, e. g. לذָ potuit, Fut. Hoph. potens fiet, i. e. poterit.

Rem. 1. Only the Preterite of Hiphil retains always the $\quad-$ of the final syllable (in 3rd pers. sing. and plur.) ; on the contrary, the Inf., Imp., and Fut. frequently take T'sere instead of it (in Chaldee the usual form), although usage generally makes a distinction between forms with $\bar{\imath}$ and $\bar{c}$. Tsere is in this case only tone-long, and hence in the lengthening of the forms it becomes vocal She ${ }^{\text {va }}$, and, with gutturals, it is changed into Pathach.
 Ex. viii. 11; הַשְׁיר Amos ix. 8. After the manner of the Chaldee, we have $\mathfrak{N}$ instead of the USMane surgendo, Jer. xxv. 3. Unfrequent exceptions, in which the form with Tsere stands for the Inf. constr., are found in Deut. xxvi. 12 ; xxxii. 8.
3. The Imp. but seldom takes the form הַקְטִיל (Ps. xciv. I in pause, perhaps also Is. xliii. 8);



N.B. 4. In the Fut. of Hiph. the form with Tsere for the Jussive is the usual one, as make not great Obad. 12, יִבְרֵ, let him cut off Ps. xii. 4, especially with 1 convers., as and he divided Gen. i. 4. Before Maqqeph this Tsere becomes Seghol, as iz־pin and he held him Judg.
 Noperplo Judg. xviii. $22:$ but the $\bar{z}$ (after the manner of the Aramæan) sometimes becomes Shera, as
 mode of writing Chireq, e. g. abeh, is not an essential variation.
5. The form of the Part. with (") in the sing. is doubtful (Is. liii. 3); but perhaps the plurals



[^66]6. In the Pret. are sometimes found the forms : wֶe have approached 1 Sam. xxv. 7, and

7. In the Fut. and Part. the characteristic n regularly gives place to the preformatives, as
 form is less intimate than that of the preformatives. 'To both rules there are some few exceptions,

 Is. xxiii. 11; Ps. lxxviii. 17.
N.B. 8. The tone, in Hiphil, docs not fall on the afformatives $7, i_{\gamma}$, and $\because$ They take it, however, in the Pret. when Vav conversive is prefixed, as וְהבְדְיִלָ Ex. xxvi. 33.
9. In the passive (Hophal) Pret., Fut., and Part. $\check{u}$ (s) is found in the first syllable as well as

 (according to §9, 9, 2).
10. The Inf. absol. is distinguished by (.) in the final syllable ; e. g. להּ 7 ª nuntiando Jos. ix. 24. Of the Inf. constr., as given in the l'aradigm, there happens to be no example in the regular verb.
11. For Imperative Hophal, see above, § 46, 1, note.

Sect. 54.

## H I THPAEL.

1. This conjugation connects itself with Piël, inasmuch as it prefixes to the
 Rem.), has undoubtedly the force of a reflexive pronoun.
2. The $\Omega$ of the syllable in this conj., as also in Hithpoell and Hithpalel (§55), suffers the following changes:-
a) When the first radical of the verb is a sibilant $(\boldsymbol{D}, \ddot{i}, \boldsymbol{U})$, it changes places
 .התְּמֵּל. A single exception is contained in Jer. xlix. 3. With 3 , moreover, the transposed $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ is changed into the more nearly-related $ט$, as an when to justify one's self for הִצְּתֵּדּק.
b) Before 7 , ט, and $\boldsymbol{\pi}$, it is assimilated ( $\$ 19,2$ ), c. g. . הִּדֵּ to converse, to

 ready. Once before ! Is. i. 16, before שí Ecel. vii. 16, before ר Is. xxxiii. 10.

[^67]3. The simificutions of Miihpräl. a) Most frequently it is reflexive, but chiefly
 one's self. 'Then further it means, to make one's self that which is expressed by the first conjugration; hence, to conduct one's self as such, to slow one's self, to imafine one's self, to affect, to be such; properly to make one's self so and so, to act
 one's self cumming, crafty ; also, Eceles. vii. 16 , to think one's self wise ; הִּ makie, i. e. to feign, one's self rich. Its signification sometimes coincides with that of Kial, and both forms are in use with the same meaning, e. g. אבָ, Kal to mourn, is found only in poctry; Hithp. in the same sense, is more common in prose, and even takes an acensative ( $\$ 138,2$, Rem. 1). b) It expresses reciprocal action
 frequently $c$ ) It expresses what one does indirectly to or for himself (comp. Niph. $\S 51,2, c)$. It has then an active signification, and governs an accusative, e. g.
 הת.n to walk about for one's self (ambulare). Only seldom d) It is passive, e. g. 7 .in to be numbered, mustered, Judges xx. 15, 17; xxi. 9. Comp. Niphal,


 washed, Lev. xiii. 55, 56; ; הִדְּׁ it is smearel with fat, Is. xxxiv. 6.

Denominatives with the reflexive signification are : הִחְיֵ to embrace Judaism (make one's self a

N.13. Rcm. The Preterite, as in Piël, has frequently Pathach in the final syllable, as Pañon to be strengthened, 2 Chron. xiii. 7; xv. 8. Final Pathach occurs also in the Fut. and Imp., as

 (§ 52, Rem. 2) comp. Hithp.

## Sect. 55.

## UNUSUAL CONJUGATIONS.

Of the musual conjugations ( $\$ 40,2$ ) some are connected, in form, with Piell, and are made by the doubling or the repetition of one or more stem-letters, or by the lengthening of a vowel, i. e. by changes within the stem itself; others are analogous to Hiphil, and are formed by the addition of prefix letters or syllables. To the former class, besides a passive distinguished by the vowels, belongs also a reflevice form with the prefix Mi?, after the analogy of Hithpaèl.

Those which are analogous to Piël, and which follow it in their inflexion, are-

1. Poël; as קוֹלִ, pass. Poal (corresponding to Conj. reflex. Hithpoël and IV.
 verb it but very seldom occurs. Unquestionable examples are: Part. prepmy opponent at laur,



The signification of Poël is, like that of Piël, often causative of Kal. Sometimes both Poël and Piell are in use in the same signification, as $\mathfrak{i}$ ר and
 לŞin to make foolish (from to be brilliant, but also to be vainglorious, foolish); ; To to make pleasant, חוֹנְ

With hupip is connected the formation of quadriliterals by the insertion of a consonant at the end of the first syllable, as ? ? ? ? ( $\$ 30,3$ ).
 iqtalla, and XI. iqtalla, used cespecially of permanent states or conditions, e. g. of colours, as ievei to be at rest, It is more frequent in verbs $\mathfrak{i} \mathbf{y}$, where it takes the place of Piël and Hithpaël ( $\S 72,7$ ).
3. Pealal; as ל? pepe, with repetition of the last two stem-letters, used especially of slight motions repeated in quick succession, e. g. סְחרחר to go about with quick motion, hence (of the heart) to palpi-
 sound, Lam. i. 20. Nouns of this form are diminutives (§84, 23). Nearly related to this is-
 from guages are prone* to express by repetition of the same sound, guryle, עְִפְ to flutter (from to fly).

## With Hiphil are connected-


 The Aramæan has a similar form,
 only in the noun fame, § 84, No. 35.

Forms of which single examples occur:-7. *pep pass. form of scales Ex. xvi. 14, from -9. נְִקַקטּל (frequent in the Rabbinic), a form compounded of Niphal and Hithpaël, found in the
 expiated Deut. xxi. 8.

We may mention also, as worthy of notice,-10. the form to sound the trumpet, commonly

- Compare tinnio, tintimus, anl in German Tichtach, Wirrwarr, Klinghlang [our ding doug]. The repetition of the same letter in verbs ע ע produces also the same effect; as in in to lich, languages express the same thing by diminutive forms; comp. in Lat. the termination -illo, as in cantillo, in Gurm. -eln, ern, in flimmërn, trillern, tröpfeln [comp. our drị, drilble]. Hence we may explain the relation, mentionel under No. 3, between these forms and the diminutives.
derived from the stem 7 . But it is probahly a denom. from form like the old Latin turatantara=luba. Ennius apud Servium ad An. 9, 503.

Sect. 56.

## QUADRILITERALS.

Of the formation of quadriliterals we have already spoken $(\S 30,3)$. The few verbs of this kind (of nouns there are more) are formed after the analogy of Pieil, once after Hiphil. The following are all the examples that occur :-

Pret. ,
 native from לsiowis , Gen. xiii. 9, and other places.

## C. REGULAR VERB WITH PRONOMINAL SUFFIXES.*

## Sect. 57.

The accusative of the personal Pronoun which follows a verb active may be expressed a) by a distinct word, (the sign of the accusative), with the suffix ( $\$ 117,2$ ), as Y PT? (he has killed him). The second method is the usual one (§33), and it is only of it we now treat. $\dagger$

This matter cmbraces two points, viz., the form of the suffix, and the changes in the verbal form in consequence of appending it. The former is exhibited in § 58 , and the latter in $\$$ § $59-61$.

[^68]C. REGULAR VERB WITH SUFFIXES. §§ 57-61.

Suffixes for 1 Sing. 2 Sing. m. 2 Sing.f. 3 Sing. m. 3 Sing.f. 1 Plur. 2 Plur. m. 2 Plur.f. 3 Plur. m. 3 Plur.f.









Imp. Sal.





Sect. 58.
THE SUFFIX OF THE VERB.

1. The suffixes appended to the verb express the accusative of the personal Pronoun; and they are the following:-

Singular.


Plural.

1. comm. IJ, us.


## Simgular.



Pleral.

2. These suffixes clearly are, for the most part, shortened forms of the personal Pronom, and only some of them require explanation.

In the suffix of the 2nd person ( $\bar{\eta}, \bar{\square}, \boldsymbol{\eta})$ the basis appears to be a lost form
 here in order to distinguish the suffixes from the afformatives of the Preterite (§ 44, 1).

In the 3 rd person masc., out of $\boldsymbol{\pi}$-, by rejecting the feeble $h$, there arose $\bar{a}-u$, and thence $\hat{o}(\S 23,5)$, usually written $\boldsymbol{\varphi}$, much more seldom $\boldsymbol{N}$. In the fem., the
 of ${\underset{\tau}{\tau}}_{-}$, we have, for the sake of cuphony, simply $\nabla_{\tau}$, where the $\boldsymbol{A}$ is regularly a consonant, and therefore marked with Mappiq.

Once (Eze. xli. 15)
3. The rariety in the forms of the suffixes was occasioned by the regard had to the form and tense of the verb which received them. Thus, tluree forms of almost every suffix may be distinguished:


b) A sceond and a third, with the so-called union-vowels $\ddagger$ ( forms which end with a consonant (for the exception, see §59, Rem. 3): with the union-vowel $a$ for the forms of the Preterite, as the union-rouel $e$ (rarely a) for the forms of the Future and Impcrative, as


[^69]
 verb is a guttural, $7=$, e. g. the tone $\mathrm{T}^{2}$.

 (7-., contrary to the rule, appended to the Pret. in Judges iv. 20.) - ln the 3rd pers. masc. is Ex. xxxii. 25, Num. xxiii. 8; fem. $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{T}}$ without Mappiq Num. xv. 28, Jer. xliv. 19.-The forms in, in- , in_, are strictly poetic (except Ex. xxiii. 31); instead of in, we find wonce in Ex. xr. 5. On the origin of these forms, see $\S 32$, Rem. 7.
2. By comparing these suffixes of the verb with the suffixes of the noun (§91), we discover: a) There is here a greater variety of forms than there (because the forms and relations of the verb are themselves more various); b) the verbal suffix, where it differs from that of the noun, is longer, as $\stackrel{\text { Ul, }}{ }$, nected with it than the possessive pronoun is with the noun ; on which account, also, the former may even be expressed by a separate word (§ 117, 2).
4. The suffix gains still more strength, when instead of the union-vowels there is inserted a union-syllable, $\mathcal{D}_{-}, \mathcal{J}_{\nabla}$ (commonly called Nun epenthetic, but better Nun demonstrative), which, however, occurs only in the Future and in pause, e. g.
 Num is, however, for the most part incorporated with the suffixes, and hence we have a new series of forms, viz.-


3rd pers.
1st pers. plur.
In the other persons this Nun does not occur.
Rem. The forms with Nun distinctly written are rare, only poctic (Jer. v. 22), and do not occur at all in 3 fom. sing. and 1 plur. The contracted forms (with the Nun assimilated) are rather frequent, especially in pause.
N.B. This Nun is of a demonstrative nature, and belongs to the appended aceusative of the personal pronoun, to which it serves to direct attention as to the object of the verb. This Nun is frequent in Chaldee ; in Samaritan it is appended also to the l'reterite, and in similar cases even a $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ inserted. In the Syriac there is a Fodh with consonant power used in the same way:

Sect. 59.

## THE PRETERITE WITI PRONOMINAL SUFFIXES.

1. The endings (afformatives) of the Preterite have in part a different form, when connected with the suffixes; viz.-
a) In the 3 sing. fem. $\Omega_{-}$, $\Omega_{-}$, the original feminine-ending, for $\overbrace{\tau}$;
b) 2 sing. masc. besides $\boldsymbol{T}$ also $\boldsymbol{H}_{\text {a }}$ to which the union-vowel is attached, but the only clear instance of it is with ' ? ? ${ }^{*}$;
 liem. 4; $\$ 4$, Rem. 4). This form is to be distinguished from the 1 st pers. sing. only by the context.
(1) 2 phur. muse. Chald. . suflixes there is no instance, but probably it took the same form as the masc.
We exhibit, first, the forms of the Preterite in Miphil as they appear in connexion with suffixes, because here no further change takes place in the stem itself, except as to the tone (see No. 2) :



The beginner is recommended to practise first the manner of connecting the suffixes with this Hiphil-form, and then to apply himself to that with the Pret. of Kal. (See No. 2.)
2. The tone inclines towards the appended suffix, so that it never remains on the stem itself. And this oceasions, particularly in the Preterite of Kul, certain vowel changes, in consequence of which the fullowing forms present themselves:-


These forms are exhibited in comexion with all the suffixes in Paradigm C. It will be seen there, too, how the Tsere in Piël changes sometimes into Seghol, and sometimes into rocal Shera.
 [more strongly accentel] forms than the others, and hence are called grave suffixes. They always have the tone, and cause in the 3 m . sing. of Pret. Kal a greater shortening than the others (called


[^70]2. In the 3 sing. masc. קטְלָּ is also contracted into ibucherding to $\S 23,5$, and so likewise in


3. The 3 sing. fem. קְקָׁה ( draws the tone to itself, except with $\begin{gathered} \\ \text { چֶ and } \\ \text { (see Rem. 1) , and then takes the suffixes that make }\end{gathered}$ a syllable of themselves ( rule ( $\$ 58,3, a$ ); $b$ ) with the other suffixes the union-vowel is indecd adopted, but the tone is drawn
 thee Ruth iv. 15, שְּרְפָּתָּ it burneth them Is. xlvii. 14, נִּ the sake of correspondence in sound, הִבְּ (she has born thee) in the same verse (Cant. viii. 5).

4. In the 2 sing. mase. $\underset{T}{ }$ PO? is always used, and the suffixes have no union-vowel, except in
 forsuken me Ps. xxii. 2. In the 2 sing. fem. 'תִּ is written also defectively 1 , iv. 9; Ex. ii. 10 ; instead of the masc. form is also used Jos. ii. 17; and with Tsere 18 ,
 syllable that has lost the tone (§ 44, Rem. 3).

## Sect. 60.

## FUTURE WITH PRONOMINAL SUFFIXES.

In the forms of the Future, which end with the last stem-letter, the vowel o of the final syllable is shortened generally to simple Slie co vocal ( - ), at times to Chateph-qamets ( - ) Jer. xxxi. 33; but to Qamets-chatuph ( $\bar{\tau}$ ) before 7, כֶ, קֶ.
 Jer. ii. 19; Job xix. 15. The form with Nun demonstratice (§58,4) is specially adopted at the end of the clause or period.
N.B. Rem. 1. Verbs with Fut. $A$ (to which belong all that have a guttural for the 3 rd radical, $\S 65$ ) retain the full $A$ in the F'ut. and Imp., and the P'athach, when it comes to stand in an open
 Ansixple let them demand it back Job iii. 5.
2. Occasionally, as exceptions, suffixes occur also in the Future, with the union-rowel $a$, as


 lx. 7, 10 ; Jer. v. 22.
4. In P'ïl, the Tsere of the final syllable, like the Cholem in I'ul, becomes Shera; but before the
 more rarely into Chireq, as
5. In Miphit, the Chireq remains, as 'נִּ


[^71]Sect. 61.
INFINITIVE, IMPERATIVE, AND PARTICIPLE WITH SUFFIXES.

1. The Infinitive of a verb active can be construed with an accusative, and then it takes the verbal suffix (i. e. the acc. of the personal pronoun), as ${ }^{3}$, but as a noun it can take also the nominal suffix (the genitive), as , mop my killing (sce § 133, 1, 2). In either case it assumes the form לope, with the o drawn backward (comp. the segholate nouns of the form קטְ, with which לקט is nearly related, § 84, No. 10, 11, and § 93, Parad. VI.).
 the form


 Is. xxx. 12.
2. What has been said of the Inf. is applicable also to the leading form לopp of the Imp. The forms קִטְלו, when, which are not presented in the Paradigm, suffer



3. In the Participles, the shortening of the vowels is the same as in nouns of the like form, e. g. לop, hep, according to § 93, Parad. VII.


## II. THE IRREGULAR VERB.*

A. VERBS WITH GUTTURALS.

Sect. 62.
Verbs which have a guttural for one of the three stem-letters are governed, in their deviations from the regular verb, by the general principles laid down in $\$ 22$. Of course $\mathbb{N}$ and $\boldsymbol{i}$ come under consideration here only when they retain their power as consonants, and are not mere substitutes for vowels; 7 also partakes only in part of these anomalies $(\S 22,4)$. For convenient representation, we

[^72]distinguish the cases in which the guttural is the first, second, or third stem-letter. The following three Paradigms, D, E, and F, where those conjugations, which are wholly regular, are omitted, exhibit their inflexions, and the following sections explain them more fully :-

TABLES OF THE VERBS WITI GUTTURALS.


|  | KAL． | Niphal． | Phel． | PUAL． | HiPhil． | hophal． | hitupael． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Phet．3．in． <br> 3．$f$ ． <br> $2 . m$ ． <br> 2．$f$ ． <br> 1．$c$ ． <br> Plur．3．c． <br> 2．$m$ ． <br> 2．$f$ ． <br> 1．$c$ ． |  | ？ <br>  <br> צִּשׁׁhan <br> －נִּ <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  <br> נִשְׁחִוּוּ |  |  |  <br> דִּשׁׁלִּ <br> דּ דּ <br> мחּ <br> דּ <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  |  <br> הָּשְׁלחהּה <br> דָ דּ דּ <br>  <br> דָּשְּלְחֵּ <br> הָשְׁלחּחּ <br>  <br>  <br>  | － <br> הּ <br>  <br> － <br> דִּשִּ <br> דֶּשִּתַּלחת <br>  <br>  <br> הִּשְּמַּחמּ |
| Iny．constr． <br> lnf．absol． |  | M ＊נִּשׁלִּ | Me： － | wanting |  |  |  |
| $\begin{array}{r} \text { Imp. } \quad m . \\ \text { flur. } m . \\ f . \end{array}$ | * שִּ | ＂הִene <br> חיּשיחM <br>  <br>  |  | wanting | м <br> הוּישיחי <br> הַשִׁלִיחּ <br>  | wanting | חּ <br> הִּשְּמַּחּ <br>  <br>  |
|  |  |  |  | ？ <br> กที่า <br> กด่า <br> 解 <br>  <br> ： <br> ค <br> ม <br> ค <br> ？ |  |  | กּ <br> חקּ <br> กด <br> ת <br>  <br> ， <br> ก <br> תּת <br> תִּ <br> ח？ |
| FUT．apoc． <br> Fut．with Suff． |  |  |  |  | － |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Part. act. } \\ & \text { pass. } \end{aligned}$ |  | בִּשְּלחM | ＊ |  | －מַשְׁ？ | ָָּשְלָח | － |

Sect． 63.
VERBS PE GUTTURAL．E．g．עָ to stand．Parad．D，§ 62.
The deviations from the regular verb may here be reduced to the following particulars：－

1．When the first stem－letter，at the begimning of the word，would regularly
 （§ 10，2；§ 22，3）；e．g．Inf． inclined．

2．When a preformative is prefixed to such forms，it takes the vowel which lies
 composite Shera conforms to the vowel of the preformative，viz．，when the latter is

 （On the Methegh in these forms，see $\S 16,2, a$ ．）

In many verbs，however，the guttural，especially $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ ，when it stands after a pre－ formative at the end of a syllable，retains the simple Shera；but in this case the preformative always has the vowel corresponding to the composite Sheva，which

 to cause to fail．

The grammarians call this the hard，the former with the comp．She ea the soft，combination．Both forms often oecur in the same verb．
 into simple Shera vocal，on account of the accession of one of the afformatives （ $\left(\stackrel{\bullet}{-}, M_{r}\right)$ ，then the composite Sheva of the guttural gires place to the corre－ sponding short vowel，as
 as well as

4．In the Inf．，Imp．，and Fut．of Niph．，where the first stem－letter would regu－
 the preformative is lengthened in Tsere，as יָעָּ．．for for

## REMムにKS。

## I．On Fal．

1．In werbs $\mathbb{N}^{\prime \prime}$ the Inf．constr．and $\operatorname{Imp}$ ．take（ $(\cdots$ ）under the first letter（according to $\S 22.4$ ，
 The（ - ）is found here only when the tone is forcibly thrown forward；e．g．שisis tise Num． xxvi．10．For the same reason we have אֲמַּ，not

In the other forms also of the $\operatorname{Imp}$ ．，the guttural often exerts its influence upon the rowel，which
 the second radical is also a guttural，as Ms．xxxi．24．Pathach occurs in שֶּ Mror，xx． 16.

2．The Fiut．A，as the Parad．shows，has regularly under the first two letters $\frac{F}{w i w}$ ；and with the
hard comhination $\frac{-y}{*}$, as

 loves, bike xxiii. 5 , is the only instance of the hart combination - - in a verb Fiut. $A$. In these



## II. On Hiphill and Mophal.

3. The rule given in Rem. 2 respecting $\overline{: \%}$ and $\mp=1$ is applicable here also in the Pret. after Vav conversire: i. e. the throwing forward of the tone occasions a change of $e^{e}$ and $a^{a}$, as





## III. In General.

 the Fut. is $\underset{\sim}{\square} \boldsymbol{\sim}$ so soon as a letter is prefixed, the first radical drops the peculiar pointing of the guttural, as nime,

6. For verbs $\kappa$ N" in which $\approx$ loses its consonant and is resolved into a vowel, see $\S 68$.

Sect. 64.
VERBS AYIN GUTIURAL. E. g. .
The deviations from the regular verb are not so great in this class, and are mainly as follows:-*

1. Where a simple Sheva is required, the guttural takes, without exception, the
 Imp., the vowel supplied under the first radical conforms to the Chateph of the


So in the Inf. Kial fom., as הַהְבָּ to love,
2. As the preference of the gutturals for the $A$ sound has generally less influence on the following than on the preceding vowel $(\S 22,2)$, so not only is the Cholem
 Niph. and Piol aņ?: he fughts, Ding he comforts, and even the more feeble Seghol (after Tav comversive) generally takes ( - ), through the influence of the guttural, even in transitive verbs,
 also, Pathach occurs more frequently than in the regular verb, as $\boldsymbol{\square}$.

[^73]3. In Piël, Pual, and Hitlp., the Daghesh forte is inadmissible in the middle stem-letter; but, in the greater number of examples, particularly before $\pi, \pi$, and $\mathcal{V}$, the preceding vowel remains short, the guttural having Dagkesh forte
 Hithp.
 like 句 to commit adultery.

Rem. 1. The peculiar feebleness of the $\mathbf{N}$ causes, in the Pret. Kal of the much-used verb haw; to ask, a weakening of the $\breve{a}(\bar{\sigma})$ under it to $(\bar{\Pi})$, and in a closed syllable to $(\bar{v})$ and to $(-)$, when the syllable loses the tone, and the $\mathfrak{N}$ is not preceded by a full vowel (exactly as in some verbs ' $\mathrm{D}_{\text {, }}$
 1 Sam. xii. 13 ; xxv. 5 ; 1 sing. with suffix ה 1 Sam. i. 28. Comp. §44, Rem. 2.
2. In Piël and Hithp., the tone is sometimes drawn back upon the penultima, and the Tsere of the final syllable shortened to Scghol; viz., a) Before a word of one syllable (according to § 29, b), as Vav conversive, as Gen. xxxix. 4.
3. The following are unfrequent anomalies in the Pret. Piël: : they delay Judges v. 28, for

4. A few examples where the $\mathbb{s}$, as a middle guttural, loses entirely its consonant sound and is resolved into a vowel, will be found in $\S 73, \mathrm{Rcm} .4$.

Sect. 65.
VERBS LAMEDH GUTTURAL. E. g.

1. According to $\S 22,2, a$ and $l$, we here distinguish two cases, viz., either the regular vowel of the final syllable remains, and the guttural takes lathach furtive, or the full vowel Pathach takes the place of the regular vowel. The more particular statement is as follows:-
a) The strong unchangeable vowels - , y, ( $\$ 25,1$ ), are always retained; hence
 O, though less firm, is also retained in the Inf. constr. Ti, in order to distinguish it from the $\operatorname{Imp}$. (as in verbs $\dot{y}$ guttural).
b) The merely tone-long $O$ in the $F u t$. and $I \mathrm{mp}$. of Kal becomes Pathach, as

c) Where Tsere is the regular vowel of the last syllable, the forms with Tiere (attended by Puthach furtive) and P'uthach are both employed. Usage, however, makes a distinction in these forms. Thus-



In the Fiut, and Inf. Niph., and in the Prel. Info and Fiut. Piël, the form with ( $二$ ) is employed at


 I'sere, which is lost in the Inf. coustr.; c. g. חhen Deut. xxii. T, else ne to send.

 accurs, Job vi. 26.
2. The guttural here has simple She ${ }^{\text {eva }}$ whenever the third radical regularly takes it (because it is Slie quiescent, which is generally retained even under gutturals,
 place, as


The softer combination with composite Shera occurs only a) In some examples of the 1 plur. Pret.




On the fecble verbs $\stackrel{\text { sit }}{ }$, see especially in $\S 74$.

## B. CONTRACTED VERBS.

Sect. 66.

The irregularities of these verbs, arising from the feebleness of the nasal letter Num, are as follows:-

1. The Imp. and Inf. constr. often lose (by aphæresis, § 19, 3) their Num, which


 Frequently it takes the lengthened form, as תְּנְ give up.
2. Whenever Nun, after a preformative, stands at the end of a syllable, it assimilates itself to the following stem-letter (§19, 2, a) ; riz., a) in the Fut. Kal,
 in the regular verb, most common, the Fut. $E$ only in this example*); b) in the

[^74]


The other forms are all regular, e. g. Pret. Inf. alsol. Part. Kal, Piël, Pual, etc. Only those conjugations which are irregular are included in the following Paradigm:-


The charucteristie of these verbs in all forms which begin with a formative letter, is the Daghesh forte following it in the second radical. Some forms, however, of one class of verbs ' $£$ (§71) and
 the $I m p$, as ex also (Gen. xix. 9), and ing.

Rem. 1. The instances are comparatively few in which the forms mentioned in Nos. 1 and 2


 however, in all verbs which have a guttural for their second stem-letter, as
 romforted himself.
N.B. 2. These anomalies are in part exhibited in the verb to take, the $\zeta$ of which is treated





Sect． 67.


| H．Verb AYIN DOUBLED（y）． |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| KAL． |  |  | Niphal． | HIPHIL． | hophal． | POEL． | POAL． |
| Pret．3．$m$.3．$f$.2．$m$.2．$f$.1．$c$. | 20＊ |  | － | 200\％＊ | 2 | ＊ |  |
|  | 吅䍓＊ |  | ניֶסָּ | － | ＊ | קִוֹבְבּה | טְוֹבְּתה |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | טוֹבָּבְּדּ |
|  | סַבּוֹת |  | נְסַּבּוֹת |  |  | טוֹבּבְתִּ | טוֹבַבְתִ |
|  | סַּבּוֹתִי |  | נְסַבּוֹתִּ |  | הוּרֶּקוֹרִי | Oוֹבַבְּ | טוֹבִבְּתִּ |
| Plur．3．c． | סִַּוּוּ |  |  | הֵרֵּ1） | הוּ0120 | טוֹבְבְיָ |  |
| 2．$m$ ． |  |  | נִסַּבוֹתֶּ |  |  | טוֹבַבְּקִּם |  |
| 2．f． |  |  |  | חֲסִּבּוֹת |  | ִוֹבַבְ |  |
| 1．c． | סַּבּוֹנוּ |  |  | הֲסִבְּנוּנוּ |  | Oוֹבִבְוּ | טוֹבְבֵ： |
| Inf．constr． Inf．absol． | ＊ |  | 20＊ | 200＊ |  |  |  |
|  | כֶבוֹב |  |  | Tont | 2－טָּ＊ | סוֹבִב | Oוֹבַב |
|  | ＊ |  | 209\％＊ | 20¢\％ |  | טוֹבֵב |  |
|  |  |  | ＊הִopּ | －号》＊ | wanting | ִִוֹבְיֶי | wanting |
|  |  |  |  | הָדֵּ |  | ֶוֹבְבִי |  |
|  | ＊ |  | ＊ |  |  | טוֹבֵבּנְה |  |
| Fut．3．m． | －יָּ＊＊＊ | 2家： | 2®o＊＊ | 2יָ＊ | （1） | 『י） | 2ziop |
| 3．f． |  | 2 2 | 209 | 20nT | 20， |  | ב20n |
| 2．$m$ ． | תָּ | ב | 2ת9\％ | 2תִּ | 20 | 2תnion | 2－ñ |
| 2．f． | ＊ | תִֶּּׁ | － | ＂תִּ | － | תֶּוֹבְּבּ |  |
| 1．c． | Now | ב－¢ | 20ำ | 2 | NTM | 20ncoun | 2aizo |
| Plur．3．m． |  | ִ？ | 129． | 吕 | 曲 |  |  |
| 3．$f$ ． | ＊ | תִּלִּדְנָּ |  | － | ， |  |  |
| 2．$m$ ． |  |  |  | 180\％ | 13090 |  |  |
| 2．f． | 界 |  |  | 䍖 |  |  |  |
| 1．c． | נָּ | נִ | 9ִפְ | P10 | ניוּס120 | $2 \times 12$ | こごご |
| Fut．with Vav conv | ，${ }^{\text {2 }}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Fur．with Suff． |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Part. act. } \\ & \text { pass. } \end{aligned}$ | סוֹבֵב |  | 20 | 2009 | 20\％ | ？ | 2\％ |

1. The principal irregularity of these verbs consists in the contraction of the
 a full rowed would regularly stand between them, as for for for for , סָב Those forms are not contracted which contain unchangeable vowels, or a Daglesh

2. The monosyllabie stem thus obtained takes, thronghout, the vowel which the full form would have had in its second syllable, and which in the regular verb
 הִבְּבּ for (comp. No. 6)
3. The Daghesh forte, which, after this contraction, properly belongs to the final stem-letter, is excluded from it ( $\$ 20,3 a$ ), except when formative additions are

4. When the afformative begins with a consonant ( $コ, M$ ), a vowel is inserted before it, in order to render audible the Daghesh of the final stem-letter ( $\$ 20,3, c$, Rem.). This vowel in the Pret. is 1 , in the Imp. and Fut. ${ }^{\circ}$-, e. g. סַּבּוֹM, Fut.

The Arabian urites indeed regularly מדרת, but pronounces in the popular language מדית maddit instead, also maddēta, which last is exactly analogous to the Hebrew inflexion.*
5. The preformatives of Fut. Kal, Pret. Niph., and of Hiph. and Hoph., which
 take, instearl of the short vowel of the regular form, the corresponding long one (according to § 27, 2, a). Hence Fut. ©
 (except the in Hophal) maly be shortened.

There is still another mode of constructing these forms (the common one in Chaldee), which supplies a Daghesh in the first radical in place of doubling the third (comp. § 19, 2 Rem.); e. g.

 Monּ1
 Job iv. 20. They therefore omit also the rowels $\mathfrak{i}$ and $\stackrel{-}{\vartheta}$, e. g. . Jer. xix. 3. The Paradigm exhibits this form by the side of the other in Fut. Fial.

[^75]6. Of many of these contractions, however, the originals are not found in the regular verb, but they may be considered as more ancient forms. Thus בס: stands for ${ }^{2}$ ºp , with a under the preformative, as in the regular Arabic form; * Hiph. הֵon for has in the contracted stem-syllable the shorter $\bar{e}$ (like the Aram. אֵּקְטֵּ comp. §

7. The tone has this peculiarity, that it is not thrown forward upon the forma-
 before them on the stem-syllable, as $19 . \dagger$ Before the other afformatives, it rests upon the inserted syllables $i$ and $\%$ (with the exception of take the tone), and in consequence the vowels of the word are shortened, as

8. Instead of Piel, Pual, Hithp. and in the same signification, is found in numerous verbs of this kind, the unfrequent conjugation Poël ( $\$ 55,1$ ), with its
 passive and reflexive, e. Mo m some is found Pilpel ( $\$ 55,4$ ), as to roll one's self
 like Piël.

## REMARKS.

## 1. On Tiul.

 are high Job xxiv. 24, רֶּ רֶּ from fen. xlix. 23.
 defecticely, with a few exceptions, which are found especially in the later orthography; e. g. iab for inh to plumber, Esth. iii. 13; viii. 11. It is consequently shortened into Qamets-chatuph or Qibuts, whencver it loses the tone, as Inf. Tר to rejoice Job xxxviii. 7, with suff.


3. Of final Puthach in the Iuf., Fiut., and Imp. (pֻe, heph), the following are examples; Inf.获 to stoop Jer. v. 26, Imp. לַּ roll Ps. cxix. 22, Fut. he is bitter Is. xxir. 9, he is slighlterl Gen. xvi. 4, Tר? he is soft Is. vii. 4. Bxamples of the Challaising Fut are: ב5:, though $2 \mathbf{5}$, is


 verbs "'ע, § 72.
$\dagger$ The terminations for gender and number in the Participles take the tone, as these are not a part of the vertal


## 11．On Niphal．

5．Besides the most usual form with Pathach in the second syllable，as given in the Paradigm， there is still another with T＇sere，and another with Cholem（analogons with hovp，心r？יָ，לכי ，§43，1），
 Paet．



 rst（from חñ $n$ ），Mal．ii． 5.

## III．On Hiphil and Hophal．

6．Besides T＇sere the final syllable has also P＇uthach，especially with gutturals，as he made
 xxiii． 15 ；plur． 1 Sam．v．10，Part．

7．The Future with the tone retracted is formed like Gen．xxix． 10.

8．Challuising forms of Hiphil and Hophal：ביֵּ Ex．xiii．18，
 xix．23）for

## IV．In General．

9．Verbs $\sum^{\circ} y$ are very nearly related to verbs $\mathbb{V}^{\prime \prime}(\$ 72)$ ，as is already apparent from the great similarity in their conjugations throughout．In form the verb $\begin{aligned} & \text { y } \\ & y \\ & \text { is generally shorter than the }\end{aligned}$
 as in the Fiut．convers．of Kal and Hiphil，in Hophal，and in the unfrequent conjugations．On account of this relation，they have sometimes borrowed forms from each other，e．g． $\boldsymbol{T}_{\mathrm{T}}$ for rejoices，Prov．xxix． 6.

N．B．10．Along with the contracted forms there are found，especially in certain conjugations


 The full form appears to be more poctic and intended for emphasis（Ps．cxviii．11）．

11．We have seen above（No．5），that in the Fut．of the Chaldee form，the Daghesh of the third radical，together with the preceding rowel，is omitted before afformatives，which however take the tone，as
 Pret．Niph． cise）；comp．Is．xix．3；Jcr．viii．14．Without Daghesh，but with the accented full rowel：


12．Although the afformatives here attract the tone less（see No．$\overline{7}$, p．111），yet it is occasionally thrown on them，as 解 Jer．ソ． 6 ；Ps．iii． 2 ；cir． 24 ；and also when suffixes are appended，as
 Cholem in the Fiut．becomes Qibbuts，less frequently Qamets－chatuph，Tsere in Hiph．becomes Chireq



## C. FEEBLE VERBS (VERBA QUIESCENTIA).

SEct. 68.

So far as $\boldsymbol{N}$ is treated as a consonant and a guttural, these verbs have all the properties of verbs $P e$ Guttural exhibited in $\S 63$. But here we regard them only in so far as the $\mathbf{N}$ quiesces, i. e. loses its consonant sound, and is blended with the foregoing vowel, which happens only in certain verbs and forms, as follows:-


 some others, the form i!l which it retains its power as a consonant is also in use, as vowel $\hat{a}(\$ 9,10,2)$, which is itself derived by contraction from $\ldots$ or $\ldots$ The fiebleness of these verbs ( $\$ 41, c$ ) affects also their last syllable, so that it receives, instead of the stronger vowel, $\underset{\underline{O}}{ }$ an $\bar{e}$ (T'sere), particularly with distinctive accents at the end of a period or clause; but with conjunctive accents, which mark the
 the contrary, תֹאn Ps. i. 6 (comp. a similar exchange of $\bar{c}$ and $\bar{a}, \S 65,1, c$ ). When the tone mores back, the last stem-syllable has sometimes Pathach, as
 (Milel) with conjunctive accents, but (Milra) with distinctives (only in Job


It is but very seldom that Tsere stands before $\mathbb{s}$ in the Fut. Kall, as तñN. it shall come, Mic. iv. 8,

2. In the 1 st pers. sing. Fut. the radical $\mathbb{N}$ (to avoid the repetition of this letter)



The Parad. I shows the forms in which $\mathbb{N}$ is treated as a quiescent (viz., Fut. Kal), and merely indicates those in which it retains its character as a guttural.




 valent in Syr, Chald., and Samar.) for terenting, Job sxxv. 11.

## Sect. 69.

FEEble VERbS Bo. First class, or verbs originally
E. g. ב巛ּ, to duvell. Parad. K.

Verbs $\mathfrak{a}$ are divided principally into two classes, which are different from each other in their origin and inflexion. The first embraces those verbs which have properly a for their first stem-letter. In Arabic they are written with ) (c. g. T-, Arab. wálada), but in Hebrew, by a difference of dialect, they take' instead of it, wherever the first stem-letter begins the form. The second embraces those
which are properly 'gl, and which have Youth also in Arabic (§70). $\Lambda$ few of these verbs ' ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ form, in some respects, a third class inflected like verbs ( $\$ 71$ ).

In



The peculiaritics in the inflexion of the first class, which is analogous with the Arabic la, are the following:-

1. In the Fut., Imp., and Inf. constr. of lial there is a twofold inflexion. About the half of these verbs have here the feeblest forms, viz. -
fiut. ביֵּ with a tonc-lengthened $\bar{c}$ in the second syllable, which may be shorteneel to Seghol and vocal Sheva; and with a somewhat firmer $\bar{e}$ in the first syllable, which in a degree still embodies the first radical " that has been dropped (but scarcely ever written

 again gives to the form more length and body.
The other half of these verbs are inflected with stronger forms, have the Fut. A, and retain the Fodh at the begimning, viz., in-

Fut. Uירֵי", as a quiescent, or resolved into the vowel $\bar{\imath}(\S 24,2)$.
That the latter mode of inflexion belongs to verbs actually ${ }^{\prime \prime \prime}$ (which has often been overlooked and falsely denied), is shown, partly by the numerous verbs which take these forms in Kal, and at the same time have, in Niphal, Hiphil, and Hophal, partly by the analogy of the Arabic, where the verbs $1^{6}$ have precisely the same double inflexion.

Even in the same verb are found both forms, one with the Vorlh, the other without it, as P



To the first mode of inflexion belong, e. g. עדָּ to know (Fut. Wi.. with Pathach in the last syllable on account of the guttural); to the second

2. The original Vav appears always in the Inf., Imp., and Fut. Niph., where it

 viz., וָּרָ offspring, from to bear [and $\underset{\sim}{7}$ guilty]. The 1 at the end of the
 bination with a preceding $a$, as a diphthongal $\hat{o}$ (4) in Pret. and Part. of Niphal,

3. The other forms, with few exceptions (see Rem. 3, 4), are quite regular.

In those forms in which Yodh does not appear, these verbs may be distinguished, in the Fut. of Kal by the Tsere under the preformatives in Niph., Hiph., and Hoph., by the Var (1, i, 9) before



Rem. 1. The Inf. of Kial without the radical Yodh (see No. 1), has very seldom the masculine

 iv． 19 is contracted to $\boldsymbol{n}$（ $(\$ 19,2)$ ．Examples of the regular strong form occur with suffixes，יָ Job xxxviii．4，iop exra iii．12．The strong form has seldom the feminine－ending，as תگֶ＇；to be able．

2．The Imp．Kal often has the lengthening ${ }^{n}-$ ，as ，
 the guttural．

3．The Fut．of the form $\mathcal{P}$ ．．．takes Pathach in its final syllable when it has a guttural，as $\mathbf{8} \boldsymbol{Z}$ ，， also תֵתn Jer．xiii．17．When the tone is drawn back upon the penultima，the final syllable takes Seghol，viz．，before a word of one syllable，and after Vav conversive；e．g．Nָּuii．Gen．xliv．33；

 יעי．Is．xl．30，lxy．23．Yet the cases are rare and doubtful where this occurs after other preformatives than＇（see Is．xliv．8）．

4．In some stems the feebleness affects also the Pret．Iial，so far，that the $a$ under the second radical becomes ē or $\check{\imath}$ ，as xi． 12 ；Deut．iv． 1 ；viii． 1 ；xix． 1 ；xxvi．1；Ps．ii．7；lxix．36，etc．In Syriac $e$ is here pre－ dominant：in Hebrew the feeble vowel is found only in such forms of the Pret．as have not a full vowel under the first radical．For a similar case，see § 73，Rem． 1.

5．As an exception，the Fut．Niph．sometimes has＇instead of the 1；c．g．לrּ， Gen．viii． 12 ；comp．Ex．xix．13．The first pers．sing．has always the form not 2 为；comp． § 51, Rem． 4.

6．In Piel，the radical Yodh is sometimes dropped after ！preformative，which takes its punctuation


7．Fut．Hiph．，like Fut．Kel，takes Seghol when the tone is drawn back，as lope him add Prov．i．5，On ？ of $\boldsymbol{i}$ for＇，as הוֹרַע ，הוּרַע Lor Lev．iv．23， 28.

 and so Hiph．הוֹלִ．Rarely and almost exclusively in later books and in poetry，we find also the regular inflexions from
 Hithp．הִתְהֵ，so that a nowhere distinctly appears as first radical．＊An obsolete stem may however be assumed，although in a word so much used as $\bar{Z}$ 敢，the feeble letter $n$ may itself be treated like＇，and so the inflexion resemble＇，Comp．also the feeble N．


Sect． 70.

> FEEBLE VERBS פּ. SECOND CLASS, OR VERBS PROPERLI 'セ́. E. g. צָּ to be good. Parad. L, § 69.

The most essential points of difference between verbs properly ${ }^{\text {a }}$ and verbs are the following：－

[^76]1. Kal has only the stronger of the two forms described in $\S 69,1$, viz, that
 of which beconcs Seghol when the tone shifts back, as "p"!! and he awoke Gen. ix. 24, $7 \times 3$.
2. In Hiphil the ' is regularly retained in writing, and is pronounced as a diph-



The following are the only verbs of this kind :


Rem. Of the l'ut. Hiph. there is an anomalous form with preformatives put before the 3 rel pers. ליֵ.
 explained by supposing that the ' of the simple form was superficially taken to belong to the stem.

Sect. 71.

## VERBS 解. THRD CLASS, OR CONTRACTED VERBS '

This class embraces those verbs '. of the first and second class, whose ' does not quiesce in long $\bar{\imath}$ or $\bar{e}$, but is assimilated like J. Some verbs are exclusively of this class, c. g.




 mistaken by the learner. When, therefore, a form has not a root in in the lexicon, he should look for one of this class.

The first two classes are exhibited in their distinctive forms in Paradigms F and $\mathrm{L}, \S 6$. The third exactly follows verbs $\dagger^{\circ}$, and is besides very rare.

Sect. 72.
feeble verbs i. E. g. gip to rise up. Parad. M.


1. In these verbs the middle stem-letter 1 always gives up its consonant sound and quiesees; not merely in the usual cases (according to § 24,1 ) when a Shera

 Hence the stem appears always a monosyllable.
2. The vowel in which 1 quiesces is essentially the vowel of the second syllable, which, in the verb, almost miversally characterises the form ( $(67,2)$. But this rowel, in consequence of the union of the Vav with it, is mostly made fuller and
 destructible though changeable, for we have $\underset{\sim}{\text { Pap }}$ (with short $a$ ) from ap, and

 is dead: the rerb middle $O$ takes the form of (from he was ashamed. Comp. Rem. 1.

The preformatives in the Fut. Kal and Pret. Niph., and throughout Miph. and Hoph., which beföre the monosyllabic stem form a simple syllable, take instead of the short vowel of the regular form the corresponding long one (§27, 2) ; e. g. היהקון

This rowel is changeable, and becomes Shera when the tone is thrown forward, c. g. before


The $;$ in $H o p h$. forms an exception; for it has become a quite firm and unchangeable vowel, as

4. In some cases, forms of the regular verb not now in use lie at the foundation

 $\S 50,2$ ) or for $\boldsymbol{o l}_{\uparrow}$ (after the form of the verbal adjective Those which conform to the regular Hebrew verb are generally the most unfre-


5. In the Pret. Niph. and Hiph., the harshness of pronumciation in such forms
 1 st and 2 nd person. For the same purpose, $\stackrel{-}{\vartheta}$ is inserted in the Fut. Kal before the termination נָה (comp. $\S 67,4)$. These inserted syllables take the tone and shorten the preceding vowels, as


[^77]Yet in some cases the harder forms, without the inserted syllable, are also in use. Thus, Fut.

 Imp. only הָקָמְּנְה ,
6. The tone, as in verbs $\sum^{\prime \prime}$, is not thrown forward upon the afformatives $i_{\tau}$, T, $\because$, as as the $i$ and $\stackrel{\square}{v}$, see No. 5. In those forms which do not take cither of these, the

7. The conjugations, Piël, Pual, and Hithpaël, are very seldom found in verbs properly $i \not ้$. The only instance in which 1 remains as a consonant is 7 yon to surround, the Piel of ע (yet see Rem. 10). In some others' has taken the place of , as in ? from aip, from בin, which forms belong to the later Hebrew, having been borrowed from the Aramæan. On the contrary, the unfrequent conjugation Pilel (§55, 2), with its passive and reflexive, is the common form employed in the signification of Pië, and as a substitute for it; e. g. ב.ayp to

 sustain, to nourish, from כּ.

## REMARKS.

## I. On Fial.

N.B. 1. Of verbs middle $E$ and $O$, which in the regular verb also have their Pret. and Part. the same ( $\$ 50,2$ ), the following are examples; viz. Pret. . בּ בive Ezc. xxxii. 30. Of the Preterite and larticiple, the usual form $\mathbb{D P}_{\mathrm{p}}$ is wery seldom written with $\mathbb{N}$
 P'ort. appears now and then also in the form of aip for $\square_{T} 2$ Kings wi. 7 , even with a transitive sense, as wiל occultans, Is. xxv. 7; Zeeh. x. 5.
2. In the Inf. and Imp. of some verbs, 1 always quiesces in Cholem, as אỉ, ziv, 7in. In most verbs, however, it quiesces only in Shureq; but even in these the Inf. absol. has $\{$ in the final syl-
 $i$ in the Inf. retain it in the Frut., as sim. In one verb alone the preformatives of the Fiut have T'sere, viz., יבּי: (for
 ceptions, as in Judges v. 12. The lengthened form [with $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{T}}$ ] has, on the contrary, the tone usually
 iii. 12 ; xl. 5 ).

 1 Kings xxi. 10. Comp. § 27, Rem. 1. In poctic language as Indieatire, as $\mathfrak{D} \boldsymbol{\sim}$ high, Num. xxiv. 7; Mic. v. 8. After Vur concersive, and before words of one syllable the tone is
also drawn back upon the pemultima, and the last syllable takes Qumets-chatuph, as a Job xxii. 28. In puuse, however, the tone remains on the last syllable, as nip rip compare Gen. xi. 28, 32, with v. 5, 8. With a guttural or a Resh, the final syllable may take Pathach, e. g. . aml he turned usield, Ruth ir. 1 (from סור).

The full plural-ending in has the tone (according to No. 6 of this section), hence ${ }^{\circ}$ Gien.


## II. On Niphal.

5. Anomalous forms are: I'ret.


## III. On IIiphil.

 killest, and even
 . הְקימִּנִי
N.B. The shortened Fut. has the form יָּיָ , ְיֵָר that he may take anay, Ex. x. 17. After Vav conversive, the tone is drawn back upon the penultima, as
 Gen. viii. 13.

## IV. In General.

8. On account of the intimate relation between verbs " ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ and $\Psi^{g}$ ( ( $\S 67$ ), it is necessary, in analysing forms, to note particularly the points in which these classes differ. Several forms are exactly the same in both, e. g. Fut. Kial with Vav conversive; Pilel of עע" and Poël of עע. Hence it is that they
 iv. 10, Me besmeared (for $\boldsymbol{\Pi}$ ) Is. xliv. 18.
9. In common with verbs iv $^{\S}(\S 67,5)$, these verbs have also in Niphil and Hiphil the Chaldee and Rabbinic formation, which substitutes, for the long vowel under the preformatives, a short one followed by Daghesh forte. This form and the common one are often both in use: e. g. הִọ to
 , יִּיג (

 SN, not נָּלֵל) to be circumeised Gen. xvii. 26, 27; xxxiv. 22, with a guttural Zech. ii. 17 ; Hiph. ל to to despise Lam. i. 8, Mher they depart Prov. iv. 21.

To this class are to be referred some forms of verbs Pe guttural with Daghesh forte implicitum, which others have derived from a false root, or uncritically altered; viz., שing for ing ind she

10. Verbs, in which the middle stem-letter $V a v$ is sounded as a consonant, are, in respect to this letter, perfectly regular; e. g. הָ to be white, Fut. which are besides also verbs îh, as שָּ, Piël to command, to wait, etc.

Sect. 73.

## 

1. These verbs have the same structure as verbs $\dot{\mathscr{y}}$, and their ${ }^{\text {' }}$ is treated in the



 Dan. ix. 2, also Lam. iii. 58. Often also complete Hiphil forms occur, e. g. Pret. הַבִינוֹתֶם, הֵבִּן,



2. These Hiphil forms may easily be traced to verbs $1 \dot{Y}$, and possibly they in part belong strictly to that class. The same may be said of Niph. נָבון, Pil. בּוֹן,
 related to verbs $i \notin$. Hence it is that we find several verbs used promiscuously, as iv and $\dot{y}$, and with the same meaning in looth forms, as $i$ ? (denom. from bin) to
 other verbs one of the two is the predominant form, as to exvult (h: is found
 שִּ to rejoice; so also to comprehend, to measure, Is. xl. 12 ; and the denom.


The older grammarians did not recognise this class of verbs, but referred all its forms to verbs $1_{14}^{\prime \prime}$, which may indeed be right in some eases. In modern Arabic we find an exactly corresponding abbreviation of the Hiphil (Conj. IV.) of verbs 妾. Yet the Arabic, as also the Athiopic, has
 tire. A fluctuation and interehange between the closely-related stems must certainly be assumed.

The Paradigm N is placed in connexion with that of verbs $\stackrel{y}{\boldsymbol{y}}$, in order to exhibit the parallel between the two classes. The conjugations which it omits have the same form as in Parad. M.

Rem. 1. Examples of the Inf. absol. are בil litigando Judges xi. 25 , niei ponendo Is. xxii. 7, also בי Jer. l. 34.
2. The Fut. apoc. is iביָ ; with retracted tone it takes the form with Seghol, as is $2 \underset{\sim}{7}$ ? Judges vi. 31. So with Vav conversire,
3. As Part. act. Iíal we find once th. spending the night, Neh. xiii. 21 ; Part. pass. D. (according to a various reading) 2 Sam. xiii. 32 .

4．Verbs siy scarcely ever suffer their $\mathfrak{N}$ to quiesec，and hence are irregular only as represented



Sect． 74.


|  | KAL． | NIPHAL． | PIEL． | PUAL． | HIPHIL． | HOPHAL． | HITHPAFL． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pret．3．m． | N゙らָ＊ |  | מיֵּ | Nupay |  |  |  |
| 3．$f$ ． | ה－M |  |  | ¢ְֻ | הִכְיָּיֵה |  |  |
| 2．$m$ ． |  | ＊ | \％ | （20 |  |  |  |
| 2．$f$ ． | ¢\％ | נִבְיֵּאתר | ？punck | ת－ | הִ？ |  |  |
| 1．c． |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Plur．3．c． |  | נִבְּ13 |  | P\％ |  | הֶ？ |  |
| 2．$m$ ． | ？Pִ？ | נִ？ | ？ | P\％ |  | הֶקְ | הֶתְ |
| 2．$f$ ． | פ\％ |  | פ？ |  |  |  |  |
| 1．c． | ？ | נִבְיֵאנוּ |  | 2\％ | הִמְיֵאנוּ |  |  |
| Inf．constr． <br> INF，absol． | ¢ |  | טִיֵֵּ | ¢ |  |  |  |
|  | טֶּ | נִ？ | טֵּ |  | הִִַיֵֵ |  |  |
| Imp．m． | 住＂ |  |  |  | הַמְיֵֵ |  |  |
| Plur．m． | קִצִֵּּ | דְִּּצְֵּּ | מִֵַּּּׁ | wanting | הַמִִֵֵּּּ | wanting |  |
|  | קִצְּ | דֶּנְ | シַּנִּM | Wang | הַמִּיֵּ | wanting |  |
| $f$. | （2x） |  | ＊פַצֵּאנָה |  |  |  | ＊ |
|  | Nצ\％\％＊ |  | N゙ざロ： | N： | Nִִ | יֶּמְיָּ | －תְּמֵַּּ |
|  | ベצִּ | Nִִֹּ | N |  |  |  | תּתְּמּבּ |
|  |  |  |  | תֵֶּּ |  |  |  |
|  | חִּמִִּּ | תִּ | חּקַּנִּ | תּקִּ | תַּמִּנִיִּ | คּ | חִּתְמַּנְֵּּ |
|  | N゙M |  | צִּכיצִּ |  | Now | N゙ゴア | バּ |
| Plur．3，m． | －解 | －נִּ | ： | N゙アM： | ＊－ |  |  |
| 3．$f$ ． | ＊ | ＊ | ＊ | ＊ |  | － | ＊ |
| 2．$m$ ． |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2．$f$ |  |  | ¢ |  | תַכִּ | ¢ |  |
| 1．c． | הנִ？ | ִִ\％ |  | צִ？ |  | N30 | נִ |
| Fur．apoc． |  |  | N－\％ |  |  |  |  |
| Fut．with Suff． | ＂\％${ }^{\text {\％}}$ |  | ＇（1） |  |  |  |  |
| Part．act． pass． | מָּצִּוּא | נִ？ | N：？ |  |  |  |  |

The $\boldsymbol{N}$ is here, as in verbs $\aleph^{\prime \prime}$, treated partly as a consonant with a soft guttural sound (scarcely audible at the end of a word), partly as a quite inaudible (quiescent) letter, according to the following rules:-

1. In those forms which end with the third radical, the final syllable has always the regular vowels, e. g. מֹצֵּ, הִמְּ"א, but pathach before the feeble letter N is lengthened into Qamets (§23,1), viz., in the Pret., Fut., and Imp. Kal, in the Pret. Niph., and in Pual and Hoph. This (r) however is changeable


The Fut. and Imp. Kal have $A$ after the analogy of verbs Lamedh guttural.
2. Also before afformatives begimning with a consonant ( $\Omega, \boldsymbol{J}$ ) the $\mathbb{N}$ is not heard, but is quiescent in the Pret. Kal, in Qamets, תָּsing in the Pret. of all the other conjugations, in Tsere, נִמִּנֵאת ; in the Imp. and Fut. of all the conjugations,


The use of Tsere and Seghol in these forms arose doubtless from the great resemblance between verbs ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ ל and (comp. 75, 2), and an approximation of the former to the latter.

Before the suffixes 7 ,
 guttural) is, that those suffixes require before them a half-vowel.
3. Before afformatives beginning with a vowel, $\mathbb{N}$ is a consonant, and the form regular, as

Parad. O gives a complete view of the inflexion.

## REMARKS.

1. Verbs middle E, like אָּ pָ to be full, retain Tsere in the other persons of the Pret., as



2. The Part. fom. is commonly, by contraction, $\pi \times{ }^{3} \dot{2}$, seldom $\pi$ nss Cant. riii. 10, and
 םx̦̦ Neh. vi. 8, the vowel is drawn back after the manner of the Syriac.
3. The $\mathfrak{N}$ is sometimes lost, as in are defilech, Lev. xi. 43. Hiph. "הַחְטְ Jer. xxxii. 35.

See more in the Remarks on verbs "ל, No. VI.

Sect. 75.

These verbs, like those ${ }^{\circ}$ ( $\$ \S 69,70$ ), embrace two different classes of the irregular verb, viz., 'b and ih, which in Arabic, and especially in Ethiopic, are
more clearly distinguished. But, in Helsew the original ' and I have passed over into a feeble $\pi$, as a substitute for a final vowel ( $\$ 23,5$ ), in all those forms which
 he huts revealed; שָׁun for he has rested. By far the greater number, however, of these verbs are originally "b; only a few forms occur of verbs ith. The two classes are therefore less prominently distinguished than verbs it and

 oppressel, are two verbs originally distinct, but with the same form in Hebrew (see Gesenius's Lex.
 confounded with those is, i. e. with the two classes "ל and " ${ }^{\text {" }}$ " of the Arabic.

As an entirely different class are to be regarded those verbs whose third stem-letter is a con-
 guttural. It is certain, however, that some verbs " heriginated in verbs with final $n$, this letter $^{m}$ having lost its original strong and guttural sound, and become softened to a feeble r, e. g. הָהָ Arab.
 חñ

|  | KaL． | niphal． | PIEL． | pual． | Hiphil． | HOPHAL． | hithpael． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pret．3．m． | 管： | נִנִלִּ |  | ，${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | － | 帚＊ | ＊ |
| 3．$f$ ． | ，לn＊ |  | ה哏：＊ | nosp |  | －דָּ |  |
| 2． m ． | \％ | TT：¢？ | ก\％ | nien |  | กָּלִ？ | N̦． |
| 2．$f$ ． | נְיֶיֵ | P1 | n | ne | חִּלִים | ก込 |  |
| 1．$c$ ． | \％ | ？ | ？ | － | חִ？ |  |  |
| Plur．3．c． | ，${ }^{3}$ |  | 品 | ， | חִּלִלִ |  | ִרד |
| 2．m． | － |  | －n | －ņa |  | םกํา |  |
| 2．$f$ ． | 㗽 | ？ | \％ | 㽞为 |  |  | דֵּ |
| 1. | \％ | ？？ | 10 | 19 |  | П－ | ִרִּ |
| Ins．constr． | niba＊＊ | nibnn＊ | niba＊＊ | nisa＊ | －רַּ |  | －רִּ |
| 1 INF absol． | －${ }_{\text {\％}}$ |  | 7 |  |  |  | ＊ |
| Imp．$m$ ． | 盛： | －רִּ | n－3．＊＊ |  | הַ／ |  | ＊דִתְ： |
| $f$. | ， | 亩， | 國＊ | wanting | 囫＊ | wanting |  |
| Plur．in． | ， |  | ， |  | הַּלִל |  | חדתחּ |
| $f$. | 管＊ | ＊ | ） |  | ＊ |  |  |
| Fut．3．m． |  | － | 闒：＊＊＊ |  | －יֵ： | －${ }^{\text {P／}}$ |  |
| 3．$f$ ． |  | T－3 | 隹 | 7－ | － | M |  |
| 2． m ． | 四 |  |  | 管䎁 |  | M | ה |
| 2．$f$ ． | ， | 施累＊ | ว่ามู＊＊ | 翟＊ |  | 3哏＊ | ＊ |
| 1．$c$ ． |  |  |  | \％ | 为碞 |  | אֶחֶּ |
| Plur．3．m． | ， | 品： | 为 | 为 | －1 | ， | ！ |
| 3．f． |  | （1） |  | ＊ |  | － | － |
| 2．m． | תחּלִ |  |  | ， | תַתִ | H | תחתּתְּלּ |
| 2．f． | תִּ | תn | 年 |  |  | － |  |
| 1．$c$ ． | ？ | ？ |  | M ${ }^{\text {Wab }}$ | 1010 | ， |  |
| Fur．apoc． |  | 䍗： | 䍝： |  |  |  | hanc： |
| Fur．with Suff． |  |  | ＂䍖：＊ |  |  |  |  |
| $\underset{\text { Part. act. }}{\text { pass. }}$ |  |  | ＊ | 管詈＊ | ＊ | －郘 | － |

The grammatical structure of these verbs（which Paradigm P exhibits）is as follows：－

1．The original Yodh or Vav，in all forms which end with the third radical，
gives place to in as a vowel-letter, and representing the final vowel; which is the same in cach form through all the conjugations, viz. -
$\pi$-r in all the Preterites,

$\cdots$ - in all the Imperatives, $\boldsymbol{M}$,
i- in the Inf. absol. (execpt in Hiph. and Hoph.), Mha, etc.
The Part. pass. Kal forms the only exception, in which, at the end, the original - appears, "גָּ, as also in some derivatives ( $\S 85, \mathrm{~V}$ ).

The Inf. constr. has always the feminine form in $\Omega$; hence in Kal Mi:p, in Piell M M, cte.

In explanation of these forms we observe-

 manner of the Arabic aqtala $(\S 53,1)$.
 plural forms as in the regular verb, have, in connexion with the usual form, another with Pathach in the final syllable. See § 51, Rem. 2; § 54, Rem.
$T$ sere in the $I m p$. sound in the Fut.
2. Before the afformatives begiming with a consonant ( $\boldsymbol{\Omega}, \boldsymbol{J}$ ), the original , remains, but not as a consonant. Properly it would here form with the foregoing il (Pathach) the diphthong ai ; but this diphthong in the Pret. is contracted first into $\hat{\imath}(\because)$, and then further attenuated into $\bar{\imath}$; but in the Fut. and $\operatorname{Imp}$. it is changed into the broad and obtuse $\because$-. Thus, in Pret. Piel, from $\underset{\sim}{\text { PitPR }}$ (after
 Piel ${ }^{2}$, And conjugations and in the reflexives, both $\hat{e}$ and $\bar{\imath}$ are used alike (see Rem. 7, 9, and 13); on the contrary, in Kal (the conjugation more in use than the rest) we find only $\bar{i}$. Accordingly we have in the-

Pretcrite Kal $\bar{\imath}$, as
Preterites of the other active conjugations and also the reflexive promiscuously

Pretcrites of the passives only $\hat{c}$, as $ग_{T}$ ?
Futures and Imperatives always $\stackrel{\square}{*}$, as
The diphthongal forms are throughout retained in Arabic and Ethiopic, and the diphthong is contracted only by way of exception and in the popular idiom. In Chaldee and Syriac, the con-

3. Before the afformatives beginning with a vowel (?, $-\pi_{-}$), the Yodh with
 ab; yet it is retained in ancient full forms, particularly in pause, as (see Rem. 4 and 12). Before suffixes it is also dropped, as 7 Thit (Rem. 19).
4. The Yodh disappears also in 3 Pret. sing. fem., where $\pi_{-}$is appended as a
 as if this mark of the gender were not sufficiently distinct, a second feminineending $i_{-}$is appended, so as to form ${ }_{\text {a }}$. So in all conjugations, e. g. Hiph.


See analogous cases, in § 70, Rem., § 91, 3.
5. The formation of the shortened Future, which occurs in this class of verls in all the conjugations, is strongly marked, consisting in the rejection of the $\pi_{-}$, by which some other changes are occasioned in the form (see Rem. 3, 8, 10, 15). The shortened Imperative is also formed by apocope of the $\mathrm{T}_{-}$(Rem. 11, 15).

## REMARKS.

## 1. On hal.



 But with suffixes it is always used; see Rem. 19.
2. The Inf. absol. has also the form ix videndo, Gen. xxvi. 28. As the Inf. constr. occurs also,
 to sec, Eze. xxviii. 17 , like ${ }^{2}$ ? ${ }^{2}$, $45, \stackrel{2}{2}$, letter $b$.
N.B. 3. The apocope of the Fut. (sce above, in No. 5) occasions in Fal the following changes :-
a) The first stem-letter most commonly receives the helping vowel Seghol, or, when the middle radical is a guttural, Pathach (§28,4); c. g. לֵֵ: for ? for
b) The Chireq of the preformative is also sometimes lengthened into Tsere (because it now stands in an open syllable), as
c) The helping rowel is sometimes omitted, especially in the eases mentioned in § 28, 4; c. g. 亿n and he took captive Num. xxi. 1, forms ארָ… let him see, and איִ? and he sau, the latter with Pathach on account of the Resh.
(l) Examples of verbs which are Pe guttural (\$58) as well as Lamedh He: :"yw and he made, from
 by the guttural ; as in Job iii. 6.
e) The verbs

 to be, occurs once the form Nin for we will be, Fecles. xi. 3.

The full forms without the apoenpe of $-\frac{-}{\psi}$ oceur sometimes even after Vav. come., especially in the 1 st person and in the later books, e. g. הsֶivit and I saw, twenty times, but never in the

4. The original ' is sometimes retained before the afformatives beginning with a vowel (comp: No. 3 , above), especially in and before the prase, and before the full plural-ending $\mathrm{i}-\mathrm{t}$, or where
 1) cut. xxxii. 37. Imp. quently like Macir, they drink P's. Ixxviii. at (comp. Rem. 12).
 cxxviii. 3, in the plur. like תiיņix Is. xli. 23. The Part. pass. is sometimes without ', as for for

 and (according to the $Q^{e r i}$ )

## II. On Niphal.

7. Besides the form with $\because$ in the 1 and 2 Pret., the form also with $\because$ is found, as 1 Saun. xiv. 8 ,
8. The apocope of the Fut. occasions here no further changes than the rejection of $\pi-$, from

 Prov. xxii. 24.

## III. On Piël, Pual, and Hithpä̈l.

N.B. 9. In the Pret. Piel, the second syllable has Chireq instead of the diphthongal $\because=$ in the greater number of examples, as '?
 is sometimes found (Prov. xxiv. 10; 1 Ki. ii. 26 ; Jer. 1. 24). Yet Pual has always Tsere ( $\because-\bar{\circ}$ ).
N.B. 10. The Fut. loses, after the apocope, the Dagkesh forte of the second stem-letter (comp.
 Less frequently is Pathach, in this case, lengthened into Qamets, as $\underset{T}{1}$ xxi. 14, Nָּת: he craves Ps. xlv. 12. Comp. Rem. 8.
11. In Piël and Hithp, are found also apocopated forms of the Imp., as for prore, Dan. i. 12 ; לחֵּ̣ feign thyself sick, 2 Sam. xiii. 5.
 will ye liken me Is. xl. 25, , wople they cover them Ex. xv. 5.

## IV. On Hiphil and Hophal.

13. In the Pret. Hiph. the forms תָּלִ? הִ? and are about equally common; before suffixes the latter is used as somewhat shorter than the other. The Paradigm exhibits the older with $\because \ldots$. In Hoph. only `-- occurs.


 Comp. Gen. xli. 49 ; xxii. 17 ; Deut. xxriii. 63.
 a helping vowel) his for which, however, is invariably substituted the form as
which can be distinguished from the Fut. Kial only by the sense. The Imp. apoc. Hiph has invariably the helping vowel Seghol or Pathach, as

14. The Fut. Hiph. with Foulh retained occurs only in Wixin Job xix. 2, from .ix

## V. In General.

17 In the Aramæan, where as before remarked, the verbs ${ }^{\circ 6}$ and 解 flow into one another, both classes terminate in the Fut. and Purt. of all the conjugations, without distinction, in $\times$.. or ${ }^{\circ}-$. As imitations of this mode of formation, we are to regard those forms of the Inf., Imp., and Fiut. in $n-$. , more seldom $N^{-.}$and ${ }^{-}$., which are found in Hebrew also, especially in the later writers



The Foth is found at the end of the word (which is also a Syriasm) for $n-$ in the Fut. lial,


18. In three verbs is found the unfrequent conjugation lilel, or its reflexive ( $\$ 55,2$ ), where the third radical, which the conjugation requires to be doubled, appears under the form $\overline{\mathrm{B}}$; viz., contracted low, Pilel

N.B. 19. Before suffixes, the $n$ final, and the preceding vowel, are displaced by the union-vowel
 takes the place of the final $-\bar{F}$ or $\Pi$..., as in 1 Kings xx. 35. The 3 Pret. fem. always takes before suff. the older form तis (see No. 4), yet with


## VI. Relation of Verbs ith and $\begin{gathered}\text { "ib } \\ \text { to each other. }\end{gathered}$

20. The verbs of each of these classes, in consequence of their intimate relation, being quite identical in Aramæan, often borrow the forms of the other, especially in the usage of the later writers and of the pocts.
21. Thus there are forms of verbs $\because$


 [Imp. Kal win : Jos. xxiv. 14.]
b) Which retain their own pointing, but have adopted the n, e. g. Imp, הश्र heal, l's. lx. 4; Niph. הֵהַבֵה to hide one's self, 1 Kings xxii. 25 ; Piell Fut. הל?: he will fill, Job viii. 21.
c) Which in all respects have the appearanco of verlss îh, e. g. צָּ thou thirsterst, Ruth ii. 9 ; ; מָּ they

 phesiest, 1 Sam. x. 6; Inf. הִחִּנְּ I Sam. x. 13.

[^78]22. On the contrury, there are forms of verbs it which, in some respects, follow the analogy of
 amb he wus sick, 2 Chron. xvi. 12; in their vowels, 2 Sam. xxi. 12.

Sectr. 76.
VERBS DOUBLY ANOMALOUS.

1. Such are verbs which have two stem-letters affected by the anomalies already described, not including, however, those occasioned by gutturals. These verbs exhilit no new changes; and even in cases where two anomalies might occur, usage must teach whether the verb is actually subject to both, or but one of them, or, as sometimes happens, to neither.
 of verbs 鬲), Hiph. (as a verb 等), but in Fut. Hoph.
2. The following are examples of doubly anomalous verbs, and of difficult forms derived from them:-
 also

 also !
c) Verbs

 1 Sam. xiv. 24 , from ${ }_{\mathrm{N}}^{\mathrm{S}}$ Nָ to swear.






 refuses, Hiph., from Nill Ps. cxli. 5.

Moreover, g) the verb $l_{\text {has }}$ חू in the 3 Pret. Kal, Gen. iii. 22. In Hebrew it occurs only in this form. But of more frequent occurrence is the synonymous לָּ לָה as a verb

Sect. 77.

## RELATION OF THE IRREGULAR VERBS TO ONE ANOTHER.

 stand in a very intimate relationship, as appears from the similarity in their
meaning and inflexion, from the forms which they have in common, and from their mutual interchange of forms. The affinity consists, as a rule, in the essential equality of two stem-consonants of firm sound, to which the common signification attaches (biliteral root, $\S 30,2$ ), so that the third feebler radical is not taken into account. Thus, נָדרָ , נוּר ; דָּרָה , נָדָה to flee.

In this manner are related in form and signification-

1. Verbs ע́ to become poor ; מוּש
2. Verbs " ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ "and $\xi^{\prime \prime}$ (in which the two last are the essential stem-letters), both to each other and to the former class. They are related to each other in the verbs
 and Verbs ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{E}^{\circ}$ are less frequently found connected with these classes, as

3. Verbs " ${ }^{*}$ and (in which the first two consonants properly form the stem), both to each other and to the former classes; to each other in


Sect. 78.

## DEFECTIVE VERBS.

It often happens, when two kindred irregular verbs are in use in the same signification, that both are defective, i. e. do not occur in all the forms. As these, however, are not generally the same in both, the two are combined to make out a
 tuli, latum, ferre; with this difference, that in Hebrew these verbs are ahmost universally related in form as well as signification, like the Greek ßaive, Aor. 2. é $\beta \eta \nu$, from the original form $\beta i c-\omega$.

Of these verbs the following are the most common:-
 signification to feel ashumed.


 בּ Th. Hithp.



 is tramsitive, to press, hence to besiege.


Rem. 1. The ense is similar when different conjugations of the same verb, having the same signitication, borrow tenses from each other; -


 cid and Inf. חixy of hat are all in use.
 also the Proch. הֲנְה.
 in use.

Rem. 2. The early grammarians often speak of mixed forms (formis mixtis) in which, as they maintain, are united the character and significations of two tenses, genders, or conjugations.
 Rem. 3) ; in others, the form scems to have originated in misapprehension and inaccuracy, e. g. בּבְנוֹרָּ in thy building, Eze. xri. 31 (where the plural suffix is appended to the ending ri, as if a plural-ending). Others again are mercly false readings.

## CHAPTER III.

OF THE NOUN.<br>[SUBSTANTIVE AND ADJECTIVE].<br>Sect. 79.<br>GENERAL VIEW.

1. Is treating of the formation of the noun, it is very important to keep in view its relation to the verb, since most nouns may be derived from verbs (considering the 3 sing. Pret. as the stem-form, according to $\S 30,1$ ), and even those which are not, whether primitives or derived from other nouns, follow the form and analogy of the rerbals. Besides, on this relation is based the explanation of the form of the feminine gender ( $\S \$ 0,2$; comp. § 94 ).

The adjective agrees entirely with the substantive in form, though it is manifestly only by a figure of speech that forms with an abstract signification can be treated as adjectives ( $\S 83$, Rem. 1).
2. A regular inflexion of the noun by cases does not exist in Hebrew, although perhaps some ancient traces of casc-endings remain ( $\$ 90$ ). The relation of case
in a nom is either learned simply from its position in the clause, or indicated by prepositions. In the form of the noun there is no change; and hence the matter belongs not to this division of grammar, but to the Syntax ( $\$ 117$ ). On the contrary, the connexion of the noun with suffixes, with the feminine, dual, and plural terminations, and with a noun following in the genitive, produces numerous changes in its form, which is all that is meant by the inflexion of nouns in Hebrew.* Even for the comparative and superlative, the Hebrew has no appropriate form, and these relations must be expressed by circumlocution, as taught in the Syntax (§ 119).

Sect. 80.

## FORMS WIIICII MARK THE GENDER OF NOUNS.

1. The Hebrew, like all the Shemitic languages, has but two genders, the masculine and the feminine. Inanimate objects properly of the neuter gender, and abstract ideas, for which other languages have a neuter form, are regarded in Hebrew as either masculine or feminine, particularly the latter (sce the Syntax, § 107, 3).
2. The masculine, as being the most common and important form of the noun, has no peculiar mark of distinction.

The ending for the feminine was originally $\mathrm{m}_{-}$, as in the 3 sing. Pret. of rerbs $(\S 44,1)$. But when the noun stands without a genitive following (i. e. when it is not in the construct state, $\S 87$ ), the $\pi$ - usually appears in the weakened form $i-$, or is shortened to $\pi-$ unaccented. The original $\pi_{-}$is very seldom found, except when the noun is in close connexion with a succeeding genitive, or has a pronominal suffix. Irrespective then of these two cases (for which see $\S 89,2, b$, § 91, 4), we have as feminine-ending-

b) An unaccented $\Pi_{*} ?$, after a guttural $\Omega=$ (which also remains unchanged
 Here the termination of the nom follows the manner of segholate forms ( $\$ 91,2$ ). When the masc. ends with a vowel, we have for $\pi$ ? simply $\pi$, as
 vowel-changes occasioned by these endings are exhibited in § $91 . \dagger$

[^79]Rem. 1. The feminine form in $\Pi_{\psi}^{*}$ is, in general, less frefuent than the other, and occurs almost exclusively when the other is also in use. It is only in the Participles and Infinitives that it is
 over, in common with $\Pi_{-}$, a form for the construct state ( 95,1 ).
2. Unusual feminine terminations:
 and often in proper names among Phonicians and other neighbouring tribes, as Aelume in Illumea, on the Arabian Gulf.
 also is found $\begin{aligned} & \text { an morrow Gen. xix. } 34 .\end{aligned}$
c) $\aleph_{\text {- }}$, Aramean orthography for $\mathrm{H}_{-}$, found chiefly in the later writers, c. g.



1) $\rightarrow \stackrel{>}{\tau}$, without the accent, as Ezc. xl. 19; 2 Kings xvi. 18. In all these examples there should be the usual accented $\pi_{\top}$, but the punctators, not comprehending the feminine here, marked the $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ (by depriving it of the tonc) as not feminine, which is however no rulc for us. Also $\overbrace{\substack{2}}^{2}=$ night appears by the tone to be masc. form, particularly as it is always construed as masc., and we find $!$, ל, , also occurring. Like it are
 some other words. Much of this is doubtful.*
f) )


3. It is wholly incongruous to consider (as Gesenius and Nordheimer did) the vowel-ending $\stackrel{-}{\tau} \ddagger$ as the original termination of the feminine and the consonant-ending $n=$ as derived from it. The Ethiopic still has the $\Omega$ constantly, and in the Phœnician also the feminines end generally in $\pi$ (not $\boldsymbol{T}$ or $\mathbb{N}$ ), which is sounded ath in the words found in Greek and Roman authors (see Gesenii Monumenta Phonicia, pp. 439, 440; Movers in Ersch. and Gruber's Encyclop., Sect. III., T. 24, p. 439). The ancient Arabic has the weakened rowel-ending scarcely anywhere but in the pause; the modern Arabic is, in this respect, much like the Hebrew.

Sect. 81.

## DERIVATION OF NOUNS.

Nouns are either primitive (§82), as $\mathbf{Z}$ father, $\mathbf{I}$ s mother, or derivative. The latter are derived either from the verb (Verbals, $\$ \$ 83-85$ ) in the sense given

[^80] רָּ high place, רָּ height, from to be high; or from another noun (Denomina-
 numerous class.

Rem. 1. Many of the early grammarians, who admitted none but verbs as stem-reorls, classed all nouns among the verbals, and divided them into, a) Forma muda, i. c. such as have only the three (or two) stem-letters, and b) Forma aucta, such as have received formative letters or syllables at


According to the view of roots and stems given in $\S 30,1$, the relation of the noun to the verb is, strictly speaking, somewhat different, since, according to it, many nouns are formed immediately from the (ideal) root. But we here retain the common view, as being easier for beginners. Comp. § 79, 1.
2. Of compound nouns, as appellatives, the number in Hebrew is very small, e. g. properly worthlessness, baseness. As proper names, they occur pretty frequently, c. g. .sیי?


Sect. 82.

## PRIMITIVE NOUNS.

1. The number of primitives is, strictly speaking, very small, the nouns which are in most languages, primitive being here usually derived from verbal ideas; c. g. most of the names of natural objects, as שe שexyed (prop. shaggy, from
 זֶהָה of members of the body, in men and beasts, for which no stern-verb can be found,

 and it makes no difference, in the grammatical treatment, to which class the nouns are reckoned.
E. g. be red) or not; אָּ father, mother, have the same form as if derived from Nָּ wive , which is very improbable.

Sect. 83.

## VERBAL NOUNS IN GENERAL.

1. In Hebrew, as in Greek and Latin, the rerbal nouns are connected in form and signification with certain forms of the verb, viz, the Participles and Infini-

[^81]tives, which, even withont any change, are often employed as nouns; c. g. Mex (to hinow $)=$ hnowlelly, בis: (hating $)=$ enemy. Still oftener, however, are predominantly employed for the verhal nom certain forms of the Infinitive and Participle, which are seldom or never found as such in the regular verb itself, though in use in the irregular verb and in other dialects; e. g. the participial
 are properly intensive forms of the Participle.
2. As to signification, it follows from the nature of the case, that nouns which lave the form of Infinitives regularly denote the action or state, with other closelyrelated ideas (such as the place of the action), and are therefore mostly abstract; that participial nouns, on the contrary, denote, for the most part, the sulject of the action, or of the state, and hence are concrete. It often happens, however, that a ecrtain signification is found in single examples of derivative nouns, which is not characteristic of the form.

Rem. 1. It need not, therefore, appear strange (for it is found in all languages) that a nomn which in form is properly abstract, should be employed metaphorically as a concrete, and vice versâ. So, in English, we say, his acquaintance, for those with whom he is acquaintel; the Godhead, for Gool himself; in Heb. עִוֹדָ acquaintance and an acquaintance ; simplicity and a simple one; on the contrary, תیָּּ that which simeth for sin, which is a frequent use of the fem. concrete (§ $84,5,6,11$ ).
2. For facilitating the gencral view, we treat first of the derivatives from the regular verb (§8.1) and then of those from the irregular ( $\$ 85$ ).

Sect. 84.

## NOUNS DERIVED FROM THE REGULAR VERB.*

We distinguish here-

## I. Forms originally Participles, or participial Nouns, from Fal.

 and 8), but not in use as a Participle. It is most frequently employed as an adjective expressing quality, as
2. קָּ, fem. Part. of verbs middle $E$ ( $\$ 50,2$ ), mostly serves for intransitive notions (§ 43 )

 intransitive sense; e. g. ; fearing, poup small, evip forler; then frequently as an adjective, even when no Pret. with Cholem is found, as לָּ honour, bihư peace. From this is to be distinguished No. 21, with the doubling of the last radical.

[^82]
 ment. A feminine with a collective signification is found in $\overbrace{\mathrm{T}}$ ?iv caravan, properly the wandering, wandering host.
5. קָּ קטק
 prisoner, صָׁטִּחַ anointed one. Also in intransitive verbs with an active signification, as small,
 harvest, חָּ time of ploughing, like the Greek verbals in tós; e. g. du urós, úpotís, properly the being harvested, or ploughed. The feminines are apt to take the abstract signification (Synt. § 107, 3 b,

6.
 zealous, הַ (
 intensive forms are also the three following:
 strong,
 as tib? born.
9. ? per indicates very great intensity, often excessive, so as to become a fault or a defect, c. g. hunch-backed, ? signification is found in the fom., as n fink folly.

## II. Nouns after the manner of Infuitices of Tial.*

10. קְ, pְטְ, (with changeable vowels), are with No. 11 the simplest forms of this class, of which the latter is the predominant, and the first the unfrequent form in the verb as Infinitive ( $\$ 45,2$ ). As nominal forms they are rare, e. g. man, of these, the three kindred segholate forms-
11. 

 syllable, and the helping vowel Seghol (§ 28, 4) in the second. Instead of the Segheol, a I'athach
 of feminines,

In masculines as well as feminines the abstract is the proper and prevailing signification, yet not


 or the form of the word is shortened from another with a concrete sense, as participial forms, meaning ruling, serving. $\dagger$ But altogether the meaning of these forms is very

* All these forms are fouml, mutatis mutandis, in the Arabic as Infinitives, or so-called nomina actionis.
$\dagger$ Such an origin of מֶֶ may he proved from the Arabic ; and in some other nouns it is obvinus. Comp. 7 ? as the mune of a town, with $\overline{\text { a }}$ a wall; and
 the passive sense the form pop is more common, as hiv food; this form is also more used in the abstract sphere, hence a youth, youth.

 renycance. 1 ,ess frequent is the form
 third radicals, and a Sheva under the first, as
 feminines will readily suggest themselves; the forms שְ peoincide with those of feminines in No. 5.


 place of driving, i. e. to which cattle are driven, wilderness; and the instrument, as fork,



For it there is a truncated form $i$, written also $i$, which occurs especially in proper names, as


16. With the feminine-ending $\pi$, e. g. סִבְלוּ folly, mixpl healing. In the Aramran, this is a usual termination of the Infinitive in the derived conjugations (comp. No. 28). Its frequent use appears only in the later books. As a synonymous ending we find at times $\pi$-- in earlier use, as תירּ remnant. Comp. the denominative nouns, § 86, 6.

## III. Participials of derived Conjugations.




药 rell,
 reddish, า רinnein blackish; hence in a contemptuous sense (like miser, misellus, Germ. Gesinde, Gesindel), as

## IV. Infinitives of the derived Conjugations.

24. From Niph. the form
25. From $P_{i e l l}$, like $\mathfrak{i}$ ? unchangeable in the second syllable.
26. מַּ


[^83]28. From Hiph. of the form announcing (with firm Qamets), Aramean Infinitives.
29. From Hithp.

32. From Pilel


35. Quadriliterals, like oi locust.

Sect. 85.

## NOUNS DERIVED FROM THE IRREGULAR VERB.

These are formed fully after the analogy of those which we have already treated of. Accordingly we shall refer these forms to the corresponding ones already described, mentioning only such as exhibit a remarkable effect of the feebleness of the stem.

> I. From Stcms 白.



## II. From Stems עע עy.



 fem. מֵomb roll. The form מסֵב sometimes, by retraction of the tone, becomes a segholate form,
 also, as


> III. From Stems is and 'b.

The participial forms are regular. Forms originally Infinitives are: 10.

 south.

$$
\text { IV. From Stoms ǐ and } \underset{y}{*}
$$

Participles: 1.




[^84]
## V. Prom Stems ל ל ל




 original 'or 1 appears, which is then pronounced as a vowel, $\mathfrak{\imath}$ or $\hat{\ell}$ (comp. on 'יִ? , § 75, liem. 3), as in rarcly remains a consonant, as in


 broorl. 28.

## VI. From doubly anomalous Stems.

We present only some eases of especial difficulty to the beginner :

1. From a verb ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ and ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$,

2. From a verb
 קָוֹ cord, from ר irrigating for ! ! , from

To the learner the stem is often obscured also by contraction, when it originally contains Nun,



## Sect. 86.

## DENOMINATIVE NOUNS.

1. Such are all nouns which are formed immediately from another nom, whether the latter be primitive, or derived from a verb, e. g. . diately from aper the east, which is itself derived from the verb $\begin{aligned} & \text { app. }\end{aligned}$
2. Most of the forms which nouns of this class assume have already been given, -the denominatives (which seem in general to be a later phenomenon of language than verbals) being formed in imitation of nouns derived from the verb. The verbal with is prefixed, e. g. was employed to express the place of an action ( $\$ 8$. , No. 14) ; accordingly this $\Delta$ was prefixed to a noun in order to make it a desiymation of place (see No. 3). Also in Greek and German (and so in English and Welsh), the verbals and denominatives are exactly analogous.

The principal forms are the following:-


 these forms (Nos. 1 and 2) indicate one's employment, trude, cte., like Greek nouns in $\tau \eta s$, tev's, e. g. $\pi$ о入íт $\eta \mathrm{s}$, रраццатєи́s.
3. Nouns with 1 prefixed, expressing the place of a thing (comp. No. 14 of the Terbals), e. g. place of fountains, from
 $\ddot{\mu} \mu \pi \epsilon \lambda \frac{}{}$
4. Concretes formed by the addition of $\mathrm{i}_{\mathrm{i}}, i_{\tau}$, as

$\mathfrak{i}$ and form also diminutives like the Syriac $i$, as little man (in the eye), apple of the eye,
 pious).
5. Peculiar to this class of nouns is the termination - , which converts a substantive into an adjective, and is added especially to numerals and names of persons and countries, in order to form
 from compound, it is commonly resolved again into two words, e. g. . Benjaminite, from the use of the artiele with such forms, see § 111, 1, Rem.). Rarely instead of - we have, a) the ending ’ (as in Aramæan), as בִּ בִּרִ (leceitful, and in proper names, as Barzillai; and, b) the corresponding $\Pi_{\nabla}-$, as ?ְבְּ (prop. milky) white poplar.
6. Abstract nouns formed from concretes by the addition of $n$ and $\boldsymbol{n}$ - (comp. the Eng. termina-

 No. 16.)

## Sect. 87.

## THEPLURAL.

1. The plural termination for the masculine gender is $\mathrm{E}^{\prime}$-, e. g. Dil horse, plur. Diorses, at times written defectively --, as in Gen. i. 21, ending in 9 - take $\boxed{\square}$ "- in the plural, as עִבְד? (Ex. iii. 18),

 ending, e. g. הin seer, plur. הitu.

This ending $\bar{i} m$ is also prevalent in Phœnician, c. g. Sillonians, in Aramean it is $\overline{\mathrm{I}} \mathrm{m}$, in Arabic ūn (nominative) and inn (oblique eases) in Nilhiopic ūn. Compare also the ending in in 3 rl pers. pl. masc. of verbs.*

Unusual terminations of the plur. masc. are:
a) $1 \times$-, as in Chaldee and Syriac, almost exclusively in the later and poetical books, e. g. job kings,
 Job xv. 13 ; xxiv. 22 ; xxxi. 10 ; Lam. i. 4 ; and other places.

[^85] chords, I's. xlv. 9, for © $\mathrm{D}^{\prime}$ ? (if it is not to be written so); peoples, 2 Sam. xxii. 44 (yet in the parallel pawnge, Ps. xwiii. 41, we have Cy , but the other form in Lam. iii. 14, and Ps. cxliv. 2). This ending is, however, doubted by some in these single passages (see also 2 Sam. xxiii. 8 ; comp. 1 Chron. xi. 11; 1 San. xx. $38 \mathrm{~K}^{\text {cthibh }}$ ) or in general, see Gesenius's Lehrgebüude der Heb. Sprache, S. 521 ff. More doubtful still is-


 Fiuther 'plen, in Is, xx. 4, is constr. st., but the '- belongs to the stem in locust-sivarm, Nah.


d) $口-$, obsolete and rare, e. g.
2. The plural termination for the feminine gender is ЛY. This takes the place of the fuminine termination $\pi_{-}, \pi_{-}, \pi_{-}$, when the noun in the singular ends with one of these; otherwise $(\S 80,2)$ it is merely appended to the form of the singular, as תּחּ

 'These plural terminations have, however, for their basis, the endings $\overbrace{\mathrm{F}}^{*}-$ and $\mathrm{n}_{\mathrm{T}}$ in the singular with double Yodh.

It is ouly from a disregard of the origin of the terminations $\Omega$ and $\Omega$ - that some words ending
 whidowhood, and many other instances. Strictly in the manner of the Syriac is the formation of the plural nịָ․ (ēdhe-vôth) laws, with Vav as a consonant, from the singular yֵיוּ

This ending ni (-oth) stands for -ath (as it sounds in Arab., Æth., and Chaldee, see on the change of $a$ to $\sigma$, in $\S 9,10,2$ ), and - $-\hat{t} t h$ is properly only a longer and stronger form of the singularending a th $(\S 80,2)$. The strengthening is intended to denote the plural. But this ending is then by a further application appended also to such nouns as have not -ăth in the singular.
For the changes of vowels occasioned by the addition of the plural endings, see §s $92-95$.
3. Words which are of two genders $(\S 80,2, b$, and $\S 107,3)$ have often, in the
 and AYự gender must be determined by observing the usage of the language in respect to each word. This is also true of several other words of both genders and both



[^86]both the plural forms, e. g. . Job xlii. 16 .

Sometimes usage makes a distinction between the two plural forms of the same word. Thus,
 distinction appears especially in the use of several words which designate members of the human body. The dual of these words (see § 88) is employed as the name of the living members themselves, while the plural in ni (which is here regarded as neuter) represents something similar, but
 ת fountains.
4. $\Lambda$ considerable number of masculines form their plural in My , while many feminines have a plural in $\square^{\prime}-$. The gender of the singular, however, remains the same in such case ; e. g.

5. It is chiefly only in adjectives and participles that we find the plural-endings regularly and constantly distinguished according to the gender, e. g. טובִים boni,

 regince.

Rem. 1. In some few words, there is added to the plural form in $\boldsymbol{n} \boldsymbol{i}$ the other termination of the plural $\square \div$ (before the genitive ${ }^{\circ}-$, comp. §89, 2), or that of the dual $\square:-$; e. g. הָּה Meight,

 in the manner of connecting suffixes with the plural forms in $\mathrm{ni}(\$ 91,3)$.
2. Some nouns are used only in the plural, e. g. קְיֶּ men (in the Nithiopic, sing. mét, man); and some of these have a singular sense ( $\$ 108,2$ ), as face. Also when the actual plural
 in Eze. i. 6.

Sect. 88.

## THEDUAL.

1. As a modification of the plural, we have the dual, which however is used only in substantives (not in adjectives, verbs, and pronouns). It is indicated in both genders by the ending $\square:-$, appended to the singular, as ם two days; but the feminine termination $\pi_{-}^{-1}$ - always becomes in this case $\pi-$,



The vowel-shortening in the noun upon the addition of the dual-ending is rather greater than in the plural, particularly in the segholate forms ( $\$ 84,11$ ), as
 -.... from h check.

Kem. 1. Unusual forms of the dual, mostly occurring only in proper names, are : a) $1:=$ and
 nud $\square^{-\prime-}$, as - cast off),
 former two are plurals from the lost singulars ulder
2. The use of the dual in Hebrew is confined, except in the numerals 2, 12, 200, etc. (§97), chiefly to such objects as are by nature or art in pairs, as
 ם pixin pair of scales (Lat. bilances), or at least are thought of as forming a pair, as ano two (successive) days, biduum, two years (in succession), biennium, ם Now cubits. In the former case the dual is used also for an indefinite plural, or a plural defined by a number, as
 Eze. xl. 43. For additional stress the dual takes also the numeral two, Amos iii. 12; Judges xvi. 28.

For more remarks on the use of the dual, see in $\S 87$, Nos. 3,5 (Rem.).
It cannot be doubted that the Hebrew, at an earlier period, made a more extensive and free use of the dual, and that the restrictions above specificd belong to a later phase of its development. The ancient Arabic forms the dual in the noun, pronoun, and verb almost co-extensively with the Sanskrit or the Greek; but the modern Arabic omits it almost entirely in verbs, pronouns, and adjectives. The Syriac has it only in a couple of words, but yet without living foree, somewhat like the Roman forms ambo, duo. In like manner, the dual is lost in the newer East-Indian tongues. On the German dual, see Grimm's Gramm. I. S. 814, 2 Ausg.

Sect. 89.

## THE GENITIVE AND THE CONSTRUCT STATE.

1. The Hebrew has no longer the living use of case-endings, $\dagger$ but indicates the relations of case, either by no outward means, as that of the nominative and gencrally also of the accusative, or by prepositions (§117); but the genitive relation is indicated by a close comexion between two nouns. The noun, which serves as genitive to limit the other, remains unchanged, and is only uttered in

[^87]$\dagger$ On some traces of obsolete case-endings, see $\S 90$.
more close connexion with the preceding nomen regens. In consequence of this connexion, the tone hastens on to the second (the genitive) of the two nouns,* and the first is therefore commonly shortened, by changes partly in the consonants, but chiefly in the vowels (when changeable), e. g. . דָּ word, worl of God, literally word-God (where we reverse the order, as God's-uord, like fruit-
 people. Thus in Hebrew, $\dagger$ the noun which stands before a genitice suffers the change (when there is any) by which this relation is indieated, and in grammatical language it is said to be in the construct state, while a noun which is not thus followed by a genitive is said to be in the absolute stute.

Such words are often connected by Maqqeph (§lG,l). The insertion or omission of it, however, does not affect their relation to each other, and depends merely upon the accentuation. On the further use of the construct state, see the Syntax, $\$ \S 114,116$.
2. The vowel-changes which many nouns exhibit in the construct state are tanght in the Paradigms, $\S \S 92-95$. This form of the noun has, moreover, peculiar terminations better fitted for union with the following noun. Thus:
a) In place of the plural and dual terminations $\square \div$ and $\square \div-$, it has, by throwing


b) The feminine-ending $\Omega$ - is used, and it always takes the place of the usual
 word has also the termination $\Omega \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{v}$, this form of it is adopted in the constr. st. (§ 80, 1, Rem. 1).
 nouns in ־- change this termination to '-. Exs. 'חַ, constr.
On the ending ${ }^{4}$ and $\because$ in the constr. st., see § 90 .
Rem. Probably the $\square$ at the end of a word was pronounced obscurely, like the Latin -m before a vowel, and henee might be wholly lost in pronunciation, just as the $m$, in the case alluded to, was slurred over in the language of common life and in poetry. (Quinct. Inst. Orat. IX. 4, § 40.) So also the corresponding $n$ of the plural-ending in Arabie and Aramean is slurred over, and that

[^88]of the plural-ending is in the verb (§4, 1, and §47, Rem. 4). After the rejection of the $m$, the final vowel $i$ of the plural-ending was strengthened by a foregoing a (Ciuna, in Sanskrit grammar), so that "i arose, which was then contracted to $\hat{\epsilon}(\S 7,1$, and $\S 9,6)$. Instead of ${ }^{\circ}-$, the Syriac still has "-: in Hebrew, ton, this form may be clearly traced in the suffixes to the plural noun (§91,2). Of this the Ohl Testament, perhaps, furnishes an example in the form to some, also Julges v. 15). It is obrious that the ".- of the dual has come from ' $=$.

Sict. 90.
TRACES OF ANCIENT CASE-ENDINGS (PARAGOGIC LETTERS).
ก-local, - and Y appended to the construct state.

1. As the Arabic distinguishes three cases by terminations, so we find also in the Ifcbrew nown three endings, which correspond in sound to those of the Arabic, but have mostly lost their signification. These endings remain only as obscure traces of a fuller and more vital organic development than the language exhibits in the Old Testament, where it no longer ordinarily distinguishes the cases by terminations.

The Arabic case-endings are : $-u$ for the nominative, $-i$ for the genitive, and $-a$ for the accusative (corresponding to the three principal vowels). In modern Arabic, these endings have almost cutirely disappeared; and when they are now and then used, as by the Beduins, it is done without regularity, so that one is used for the other (Wallin, in Zeitschr. d. morgenl. Gesellsch. Vol. V., 1851, p. 9). Already, in the inscriptions upon Sinai, the regular use is not adhered to (Becr, Studia Asiatica, 1II., 1840, p. xviii; 'Iuch. in Zeitschr. d. morgenl. Ges. Vol. III., p. 139); and even at present may be heard among the Arabs of the peninsula of Sinai, e. g. ammuk (thine uncle, nom.) used also for ammik (gen.) and ammak (acc.). The Ethiopic, likewise, has preserved only the $a$-, which is, however, still used for the whole range of the accusative, and, moreover (the distinction of case being dropped), as a termination of the constr. st. for connecting it with a following genitive.
2. The accusative relation is still very obvious in the toneless-ending $\overbrace{\tau}$, which is appended to the substantive-
a) Most generally to denote direction towards an object or motion to a place,*
 the north, northward, בֵּ בָּלָּה to Babylon, Assyria to the earth,




 contrary to rule) towards the rising of the sun, eastucard.

[^89]b) Sometimes in a weaker sense, as merely pointing to the place where,* as שִּהָּ there Jer. xviii. 2 (usually thither).
c) The proper sense of the ending $T-$ is still more suppressed when a prepo-

 unto Apluek Jos. xiii. 4.
This termination $\boldsymbol{T}_{\text {- }}$ has usually reference to place (hence called Ue local) ; jet it also, in rare cases, refers to time; so, perhaps, עַּהָה (with the tone on the last
 peculiar in חָּלָלד, prop. ad profanum! = absit! As accusative of the olject (but
 comp. Job xxxiv. 13.

As this ending is properly unaccented, the vowels of the word, as the above examples shov, undergo scarcely any change, except that the helping rowel of segholate forms becomes Sheva
 as צֶּ
3. Much less frequent, and almost exclusively poetical, is the use of the two - other endings, which along with the accusative in $\boldsymbol{T}_{\boldsymbol{T}}$ - are presumed to correspond to the Arabic terminations of case, '- for the genitive, Y (also in proper names) for the nominative. Yet the reference to case in these forms is quite lost, and they are to be regarded only as archaisms, which occur in poctry or in stately speech, and are besides found in many compound names handed down from carly times. As in these names, so also elsewhere, these terminations stand only with a noun closely connected with another, viz., in the constr. state. $\dagger$
a) The ending $\quad-$ is not very unfrequent, and it usually has the tone, e. g.


 manner of Melchizedek; Ps. cx. 4; very often when a preposition follows


[^90]לִanding to the tine Gen. xlix. 11; comp. Is. xxii. 16; Micalh vii. 14; P's. exiii. 5-9, and other passages: in like manner it is found with many particles which are strictly nouns in the constr. st., as

 comp, the Punic name IHannibal, i. e. הְַּּבַּנַּל (favour of Baal).
b) The ending 4 is of much rarer occurrence, in prose only in the I'entateuch, and that in solemn style, Gen. i. 24, הַיְּת $\mathfrak{\dagger}$ ำ; the same is copied in Ps. 1. 10; lxxix. 2; civ. 11, 20; Zeph. ii. 14;

 Prov. xiii. 4.
The effect these endings have on the rowels may be seen from the examples given. The Pathach of the feminine ending $n$ - becomes sometimes vocal Sherva, sometimes Qamets.
Ren. As these two terminations '- and $\dagger$ ' have wholly lost their significance, they can no longer pass for proper case-endings: yet it is probable that once they as well as $n_{-}^{-}$(No. 2) were so used in the living language; for we find that the ancient Arabic had exactly corresponding endings, and like the Hebrew (see above) lost them at a later period. This is the case also in other tongues. In Latin, for instance, we find a trace of the local case with the same ending as in Sanskrit (in names of towns, ruri, domi, etc.); in modern Persian the plural-endings an and ha are ancient terminations of case, which are no longer so used,- not to mention the Germanic languages and the lingua Romana. Even in cases where the ancient Arabic attached, with stronger sound, casc-






## Sect. 91.

## THE NOUN WITH PRONOMINAL SUFFIXES.

In connecting the noun with pronominal suffixes, which in this case denote the genitive of the pronoun ( $\$ 33,2, b$ ), we have, as in the verb ( $\S 57$, etc.), two things to notice, viz., the form of the suffixes themselves and the change in the noun that receives them. Here we take up chiefly the first, as the second will be treated of under the inflexion of nouns in $\S 92$. A general view of the suffixes is given also in Paradigm A. We exhibit the suffixes, first, as appended to the singular, and then as appended to the plural and dual of the noun.

1. The suffixes appended to the singular are the following:-

Singular.

1. com. $\because \quad m y$.



## Plural.

1. com. our.



Rem. 1. There is less variety of forms here than when they are attached to the verb, and their use is as follows:-
a) The forms without a union-rowel are joinced to nouns which end with a vowel, as wanc when
 ending in $\Pi_{\tau}^{-}$(see below, in No. 4) and $\nabla_{\vartheta}$ - (see letter $b$ ) do not come under this rule.
b) The forms with a union-vowel ( $\S 58,3, \dot{b}$ ) are joined to nouns ending with a consonant, which include the great mass. The union-rowel is usually $a$ in the 3 rd sing. i, it (contracted from in-),
 xxy. 3,) and almost exclusively with nouns in $n-$, where the termination either blends with the union-
 customary forms, while $\overline{-}-1$
2. Rare forms are-

Sing. 2nd pers. m.
 Gen. ix. 21; xii. 8; xiii. 3; xxxv. 21 ; חS? 2 Kings xix. 23 , for which we find is? in Is. xxxvii. 24, סוּה Gen. xlix. 11 (Keri into).

 form $\square_{\uparrow}^{-}$). Fem. . also in is unfrequent (Is. iii. 17), usually $i_{-}$.
2. In appending the suffixes to the plural masc. in $\square^{-}$- and the dual in $\boxed{\square}-$, these endings are changed for the construct-ending (\$89,2) in $\stackrel{-}{-}$, which becomes blended with the suffixes; and hence we have these

## Suffixes of Plural (and Dual) Nouns:

## Singular.



Plural.

In most of these forms the ending of the plural construct, ${ }_{-}^{-}$, remains un-





Rem. 1. The Yodh, which distinguishes these suffixes, is oceasionally omitted in most of the
 ? after their kinds Gen. i. 21. This happens most commonly with the suff. 3rd pers. m. sing.,
 c. g.
2. Unusual forms are: sing. 2nd pers. fem. 7 '-. Eceles. x. 17, '?’:- Ps. ciii. 3-5; 3rd pers. masc.


3. On in' $\frac{\lambda}{n}$, see further in § 103,2 , in the Note.
3. It is clear and beyond doubt that the Yodh in these suffixes, in reality, belongs to the ending of the constr. st. of the masculine plural. Yet this was so far lost sight of by those who spoke the language, that there arose the strange peculiarity (in a sense, inaccuracy) of appending these suffix-forms (already embracing the plural-ending ${ }^{\circ}-$ ) to the feminine plural in ת, as as,

N.B. This is the rule; yet the bare suffix (as in No. 1) is sometimes appended to the ending ni, as
 generations.
4. We now subjoin, in illustration of the preceding statements, a Paradigm of the masculine and feminine; and choose for the purpose a word whose stem-vowel is unchangeable. Instead of the feminine-ending $\pi_{\top}^{-}$in the singular, the constructending ת- is employed, which retains its Pathach before $\underset{\sim}{\square}$, $\overbrace{ֶ}$, but changes it to Qamets before the others, because it then comes to stand in an open syllable (§ $89,2, b$ ).

[^91]Masculine Noun. Feminine Noun.
Singular.

Suff. sing. 1. com.
2. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { masc. } \\ \text { fem. }\end{array}\right.$
3. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { masc. } \\ \text { fem. }\end{array}\right.$
plur. 1. com.
2. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { masc. } \\ \text { fem. }\end{array}\right.$
3. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { masc. } \\ \text { fem. }\end{array}\right.$

Suff. sing. 1. com.
2. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { masc. } \\ \text { fem. }\end{array}\right.$
3. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { mase. } \\ \text { fem. }\end{array}\right.$
plur. 1. com.
2. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { mase. } \\ \text { fem. }\end{array}\right.$
3. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { masc. } \\ \text { fem. }\end{array}\right.$


סטוּטָה a mare.
סוּסָחת my mare.

Divn thy mare.
Dis mare.
סוּפָחתּ her mare.
פוּפָּתּנוּ our mare.
פטוּתַתְּת your mare.
סַוּפַּתְּ your mure.
סוּסָתָ their mare.
טוּסָּקֹ

Plural.

מוּטִים horses. פוּסַ my horses.

Dinn thy horses.隹 his horses. פוּסּיָה her horses. פוּסֵּנִּ

פוּסֵּקָ your horses.
סוּטיֶּ their horses.
סוּטֵיהֶן their horses.

פוּפות mares.
סוּסוּתִּ my mares. טוּסוֹתִּך סוּסוֹתִּך thy mares. סוּפוֹתוּוּו his mares. ס her mares. סוּסוֹתּינוּ our mares.
עour mares.
סטוּסוֹתֵּהֶּ

Sect. 92.

## VOWEL CHANGES IN THE NOUN.

1. The vowel changes of nouns (to which is commonly given the name dedension), are caused, $a$ ) by a noun following in the genitive, $b$ ) by pronominal suffixes, c) by the plural and dual terminations; to which is added, again, the effect of a genitive following, or suffix.
2. The tone, in all these cases, is moved forward more or less, or even thrown upon the following word. We here distinguish three cases, vi\%-
a) When the tone is moved forward only one place. This effect is produced by





b) When the tone is moved forward two places, as in the plural construct, and when the grave suffixes are appended to the plural (


In Segholates, as they have the tone on the penultima, there is here a difference. The suffix has not so great effect as the (heavier) plural-ending $\quad \square \div, \pi$ : the former leaves the chief vowel still under the first letter, as ; but in the latter vocal $\mathrm{Sh}^{e} v a$ is substituted for it, but a Qeemets is

c) When the suffix is preceded by a semi-syllable with vocal Sheva, which is the
 $i_{\mathrm{T}}$ ). Of these the first is a light suffix, and regularly affects the vowels in just the same manner as ${ }^{\circ}$., 4, e. g. . suffixes, and have more effect in shortening the vowels, as ctc., as is shown in the Paradigms. A similar effect is seen in the construct

3. The vowel changes in fem. nouns ( $\$ 95$ ) are not so considerable, the addition of the feminine-ending having already occasioned a shortening of the vowels ( $\S 94$. )

Most of the vowel changes, which form this internal inflexion of the noun, are based on the principles laid down in $\S \S 23-29$. There are others, however, which are occasioned by the peculiar structure of certain forms of nouns exhibited in $\$ \S 84,85,86$. They are nearly all confined to the last two syllables of the word, the third syllable from the end seldom having a mutable vowel ( $\S 27$ at commencement).
There is a striking difference between the vowel changes in the verb and the noun. In the verb



Changes of consonants are very few, and occur only in Paradigm IX.
Sect. 93.

## paradigms of masculine nouns.

Masculine nouns may be most conveniently arranged, with reference to their vowel changes, in nine classes, as in the Tables on the two following pages. See the necessary explanations in the pages which immediately follow these Tables. We here only remark in general,-

[^92]a）That all feminines without a distinctive termination $(\S 107,1,3)$ are inflected like masculine nouns，except that in most cases they take the plural
 is also the form before all the suffixes；see § 95 ．
b）That，in the plural，light suffives are without exception attached to the alsolute，and grave suffixes to the construct state，as may be scen from the Paradigm．

Paradigms of Masculine Nouns．

|  | I． | II． | III． | IV． |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | （No rowel changes．） |  |  | a． | b． |
| Sing．absol． | (horsc) | $\underset{\substack{\text { (eternity) }}}{\substack{\text { ciy }}}$ | $\underset{\substack{7 \\ \text { (orerseer) } \\ \hline \multirow{2}{7}{}}}{\text { nen }}$ | $\underset{\substack{1 \text { word) } \\ \hline 1 \text { Tup }}}{ }$ | $\underset{\substack{-5 \\ \text { (wise) }}}{\substack{4}}$ |
| constr． | ֶוּם | Civ | דֶּיִיר |  | － |
| light suff． | טוּטיִי | עִוֹרִ？ | דְּקִיִיִי | －דּרֶ | ¢ |
| grave suff．＊ |  |  |  | ลจาบ | ェコัコワ |
| I＇lur．absol． | טוִּים | צִוֹלִִים |  | ¢ | －¢ ¢ ¢ |
| constr． | סוּיֵי |  |  | －7ワา | － |
| light suff． | סוּטירי |  |  | フาフ7 | הִכִ\％ |
| grave suff． | ַוּיֵיֶֶם |  |  |  | －ว゙セフา |
| Dual absol． | $\underset{\text { (tmo days) }}{\substack{\text { ingen }}}$ |  | $\underset{\text { (two weeks) }}{\substack{\text { שungen }}}$ | פּכְּנְ |  |
| constr． |  |  |  | כַּנְ： | － |


| Sing．absol． | V． |  |  | VI． |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | a． | b． | c． | a． | b． | c． |
|  |  |  | $\underset{\substack{7 \\ \text { (court) } \\ \hline}}{ }$ |  | (book) |  |
| constr． | ipipin | פֶּ\％ |  | 7\％ | บํา | p |
| light suff． | \％ |  |  | ַַּרִּ | ִִ？ | קךְ |
| grave suff． | 10\％ |  |  |  |  | ロ－セบาp |
| Plur．absol． |  |  |  | －\％ |  | ごゼ阿 |
| constr． | ！ |  | הִִַּירי | 1909 | ִִּרִיר | P\％ |
| light suff． |  |  | דֶּרֶרִ | ¢？ |  | קר．7． |
| grave sulf． | ！！ |  |  |  | ロゴา |  |
| Dual absol． |  |  |  | רגְיִים $(\text { frot })$ |  | ごコグッ （livins） |
| constr． |  |  |  | רִ？ |  | －\％ |

[^93]
## Paradigms of Masculine Nouns.

VI. (continued.)

Sing. ubsol.
constr.
light suff.
grave'suff.

Plur. absol.
constr. light suff. grave suff. Dual ubsol.
constr.


Explanations.

1. To Paradigm I. belong all nouns whose vowels are immutable. Of course there are no vowel changes in this Paradigm, and it is inserted only for comparison with the others.


 ( $\S 25,3$ ) ; $6,7,8,13,26,27$.
2. To Parad. II. belong nouns which have a changeable Qamets in their final syllable, and are either monosyllabic or have the preceding vowels immutable; e. g. יָּ hand, בָּ מִרְבָּר , wailderness.



There are some nouns which resemble, in form, the abuve examples, but which have an unchanyeable Qamets in their final syllable; and hence they do not belong to this class, e. g. forms


3. Parad. III. embraces those nouns which have an immutable vowel in the final syllable, and a mutable Qamets or Tsere in the penultima as a pretonic vowel

 -ְְכִרוֹן

Here also are to be distinguished nouns which resemble the above forms, but which have an


4. Parad. IV. embraces nouns of two syllables with Qamets changeable in both. For the changes in these vowels, see $\$ 92,2$. Nouns of this form are very numerous. The influence of a guttural, especially on the form of the plur. constr., is seen in the second of the two examples given in the Paradigm. Other examples are: :ָָה gold, זָּ tail; with a guttural,

In like manner are declined nouns of the less frequent form, לָכָּ heart, שֵּבָּ strong drink; with a guttural, hair, שֵּעָּ hrape.



 immutable in both syllables of חָׁ for
5. Parad. V. is properly a mere variation of the preceding one. The final Tisere is treated like final Qamets in Parad. IV. except that in the constr. st. ip? stands for ipit. Some nouns, however, take the segholate form (No. VI.) in the constr. st.; e. g.
 Ex. iv. 10 and

Rare execptions are forms like -לבָּ Ps P's. xxxv. 14, where Maqqeph follows. Examples of the


Some nouns of this form retain their T'sere in constr. st. plural ; e. g. phur. constr. ple ; ; so also ',
6. 'To Pariul. V'. belongs the large class of nouns denominated Segholate forms ( $£ S_{1, ~ N o .11) . ~ B e f o r e ~ s u f f i x e s, ~ a n d ~ i n ~ t h e ~ c o n s t r . ~ s t . ~ o f ~ t h e ~ p l u r a l ~ a n d ~ d u a l, ~ t h e y ~}^{\text {en }}$ resume their original monosyllabic form and primary vowel ( $\bar{u}, \vec{\imath}, \vec{o}$ ) under the first
 hence Qamets) immediately before the accented termination, while only a vocal Shea remains in the proper place of the stem-vowel (i. e. after the first radical), as

These forms may be arranged in three classes, the first having $A$, the second $I$, the third $O$, in the first syllable. The Paradigm exhibits, under $a, b, c$, derivatives of the regular verb; under $d, e, f$, forms which have a guttural in the final syllable;
 iל. Comp. § 85, IV. No. 11, V. No. 11.

## REMARKS.

 in



 also $\overline{7}$ ?

There are, however, nouns of this form which take $i$ instead of $a$, either because the $a$ is shortcned ( $\S 27, \mathrm{Rem} .3$ ), or because they pass over to the form

 Hos. i. 2, and 'יל? י. Is. lvii. 4.

 the influence of the guttural. It is to be observed, moreover, that in the hard combination (riz.,
 lene, as in (ֵֵ) simple Sheva may be retained here also, as in on the contrary, the forms

2. The form (ֵֵ and before suffixes in the singular ; e. g. הֵטְּ

3. The form


Hos. xiii. 14 קָּטְ for Qamets-ehatuph supported by Methegh is lengthened to a long vowel ; comp. § 63, Rem. 4.
In the plural absolute, only few nouns have the form with Chateph-qamets under the first radical





 article it is pointed as

4. According to the same analogy, are inflected the kindred monosyllabic forms which have their yowel between their last two stem-letters (§ 84, No. 10); as aine with suff.

5. Only derivatives from verbs ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ and ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ "hange their form (by contracting the dipthongal aw
 lueal this contraction does not take place; e. g. . the contrary, the middle radical becomes sometimes a consonant in the plur. abs., as from
 vowel by contraction in the gencral form; e. g. רוֹש, plur. .
6. Of Segholates from verbs "ל there are also properly three classes, distinguished by the $A, E$,
 חָּלְי in the plur. and dual, In the plur., some nouns take $\mathfrak{N}$, instead of, on account of the preceding Qamets ( $\$ 24,2, c$ ); as 'צִּ, plur.
7. 'To Parad. VII. (which approximates itself to Parad. II.) belong nouns which have mutable Tsere in their final syllable, and are either monosyllabic, or have their preceding vowels immutable. It accordingly embraces all participles in Kal (of the form (pup, not and those in Piël and Hithpuil, the form hip (§ S4,


The following deviations from the Paradigm are to be noted: a) Several nouns take I'athach in


 in the plur.absol., as the Paradigm shows; it is also retained in several words which are not

8. Parad. VIII. embraces all nouns which double their final stem-letter when they receive any accession at the end. This donbling may be either the result of a contraction within the stem, or more of a euphonic character. The vowel preceding the doubling is then short; and the syllable sharpened (according to $\S 27,1$ ). If the word is of more than one syllable, the vowel of the penultima conforms to

 found among those which are inflected according to this Paradigm. Whether a noun belongs here cannot, therefore, be known from its form, though its etymology will generally decide.

Eitymology refers to this Paradigm the following classes of nouns; viz., a) All derivatives of verbs ( ע ע

 as regular verb (§ 84) under the following forms: 10. .
 these five forms which do not take Daghesh in the plural, and those which are here adduced are to be regarded rather as exeeptions to the prevailing usage. They are pointed out in the Lexicon.
Before suffixes having vocal Shera as union-vowel (like $7-, \quad \square-$ ), the Daghesh may be omitted; the same vowel is generally retained, however, except that in words of the form pin it is more commonly Qamets-chatuph.
 Chireq, as n ת,
9. Parad. IX. embraces derivatives from verbs (\$ 85, V.) which terminate . in $\uparrow$-; as an weautiful, affect the final syllable $\rightarrow-$ (which is treated as in verbs $i$ ) are peculiar to this Paradigm, the vowel of the first syllable being treated according to the general rules.

The original termination ' $=$ for which $ה_{-}$is substituted ( $\S 24,2$, and $\S 75,1$, Rem.) is often


 so perhaps also my maker Job xxxv. 10. But forms also occur in which (as the Parad. shows)
 for Part. Pual), Is. xav. 6.

Sect. 94.

## VOWEL CHANGES IN THE FORMATION OF FEMININE NOUNS.

1. The termination $\overbrace{\tau}(\$ 80,2)$ appended to a masculine noun, affects the tone of the word, and consequently its vowels, in the same manner as the light suffixes beginning with a vowel (see $\S 92,2, a$ ). The following are examples of the formation of feminines in the several Paradigms:-






2. The vowel in the penultima is affected in the same manner when the femi-
 חִבְבֵרֶ. The final vowel is also affected in several ways, so that the termination of the word is formed after the analogy of the Segholates:

 fem. חֲחֵּשֶׁת five; fall
c) Vowels which are long and immutable (4, ', `-) pass over into the cor-


 $\Pi \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\tau}), \Pi \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{*}$, and $\Pi \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{*}$, corresponding exactly to the forms of masculine nouns in Parad. VI. The same correspondence appears also in their inflexion in the singular. The termination $\Omega \stackrel{\text { (when the word ends with a guttural) always }}{2}$



Rem. 1. A rare form, $\pi_{--}$for $\Pi_{\because} \frac{2}{*}$, has already been noticed in $\S 74$, Rem. 3. Another form, after the manner of the Arabic, viz.,包). Since this form, in all the three places where it occurs, stands in connexion with the 2nd pers. sing. fem. Preterite, it may perhaps be owing to a wish to copy after that Pretcrite form;

2. When masculines of Parad. VIII. receive the termination $\Pi_{\vartheta}^{2}$, they necessarily omit the



Sect. 95.

## PARADIGMS OF FEMININE NOUNS.

The inflexion [or declension] of these nouns is more simple than that of masculines ( $\$ 92,5$ ), the addition of the feminine-ending having already occasioned as

[^94]much shortening of the vowels as can be admitted; e. g. from Parad. III. גמְּרְלָ; VII. קְטְלָה; VIII. All these feminine forms belong to the single Parad. A. In the plural, no distinction is made between the light and the grave suffixes, the former, as well as the latter, being appended to the construct state.

These nouns have only three modes of inflexion, Parad. A (inserted merely for the sake of comparison) having no vowel changes. A general view of these inflexions is presented in the subjoined Table, which is followed by the necessary explanations.


## Explanations.

1. To Parad. $B$ belong those feminines which have a changeable Qamets or
 ness, תּנועָבָּ abomination. It accordingly embraces the feminine forms from the masculine nouns belonging to Parad. II., IV., V., and several belonging to Parad. IX.

For the formation of the new syllable in words having Shera $(\S 26,4)$ before their mutable Qamets or Tsere (which falls away by inflexion as in the Parad.


Many nouns of this form, however, take in the construct state, and before suffixes, the co-existing form in $\Omega_{\vartheta}$ \% or $\Omega_{-}$(



Qamets is firm in all nouns like ©


2. To Parad. $C$ belong feminines derived from the segholate forms (Parad. VI.). These two Paradigms are also analogous in their inflexion, the plural absolute in both taking Qamets under the second consonant of the original form; e. g. הֶק,


Care must be taken not to confound with nouns of this class those feminines of the same form which are not derived from Segholates, particularly the derivatives from verbs ith of the form .

3. To Parad. $D$ belong segholate nouns formed by the addition of the feminineending $\Pi_{-}^{-}(\$ 94,2)$. These correspond, in the inflexion of the singular, to masculine Segholates (§93, Parad. VI.). To the examples in the l'aradigın may


Of the form an example. The same inflexion, however, is exhibited by some words ending in $\Pi_{5}^{\prime}$, viz.., those


Many nouns of this class borrow their plural from the co-existing form in $\Pi_{\bar{T}}$,



## Sect. 96.

## LIST OF THE IRREGULAR NOUNS.

1. There are several anomalous inflexions of the noun, chiefly in respect to some particular words only, or a few analogons among themselves, which may be best exhibited in an alphabetieal list of the words in which they are found. They require the more attention, because, as in all languages, the words which they affect are those in most common use.
2. Most of these irregularities of inflexion consist in the derivation of the construct state, or of the plural, not from the absolute state of the singular, but from another wholly different form ; precisely similar to what we have seen in the




 But the plur. absol. is with Dag. f. implicitum (§ 22,1 ), as if from when
 of ירָּ), see § 27 , Rem. $2, b$.

Nֶ one (for
 In one instance, Eze. xxxiii. 30, it takes the form (by aphceresis, § 19, 3), as in Aramæan. Plur. צֶהָדִים some.



 -••ֵּ

Naid-servant, plur. (with in as a consonant) Comp. in Aram.



[^95]








חדָ father-in-law, with suff. MMN sister.


 with suff. פֵּ

 mouth, ${ }^{7}$.


Sect. 97.

## NUMERALS. I. CARDINAL NUMBERS.

1. The cardinal numbers* from 2 to 10 are, in Hebrew, substantives with abstract meaning, like triad, decad, $\pi e v \tau i ́ s$, though they are also used adverbiully

[^96]（§ 120）．Only adjective．Of the remaining numbers，each has different forms for the two genders，but usage employs the feminine form in connexion with masculine nouns， and rice versû．

It is only in the dual form for two，שְׁנe ，fom ，that the gender of the numeral agrees with that of the object numbered．

The numerals from 1 to 10 ：－

## Masculine．

| 1. | Absol． <br> אח | Constr． N゙ | Absol． <br> ת | Constr <br> תーی |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2. | ¢ׁׁux | שׁׁנִי |  | ¢ֻׁת |
| 3. |  |  |  |  |
| 4. | אַרְַּּ | אַרִֵַּּ | אַרִּ3 | אַרַּ |
| 5. |  |  | חָמֵּ | דָמֵּטִ |
| 6. |  | טֶּשֶׁת | טֵּ4 | טֵּ4＊ |
| 7. | שִׁבִּנְה | שִׁבְִׁתַת | שֶׁבֵע | שׁׁבַּ |
| 8. |  |  |  |  |
| 9. | תֶּשִֶּׁׁ | תֶּשׁׁנַת | ¢ |  |
| 10. |  |  | \％ֶּ |  |

The other Shemitic languages exhibit the same peculiarity in respect to the genders．For the explanation of this phenomenon the following observations may perhaps suffice．These numerals， being originally abstract substantives，like decas，trias，had both the masculine and feminine form． The feminine was the chief form，and hence became connected with words of the predominant masculine gender；and the other form without the feminine－ending was used with words of the feminine gender．$\dagger$ Usage made this a settled law in all the Shemitic languages．The exceptions are very rare ；e．g．．i． festly occasioned by the masculine form of the word Dive（），Eze．vii．2；Job i．3；Jer．xxxvi． 23.
2．The numbers from 11 to 19 are expressed by adding to the units the
 without a conjunction．In such as are of the feminine gender（masculine in form），the units are in the construct state，which in this case indicates merely a

[^97]close connexion, not the relation of the genitive ( $\$ 116$ ). These numerals have no construct state, and are always construed adverbially.

In the first two of these numerals there are some deviations from analogy: the third shows the manner in which the rest are formed.

 the masculine too has the units in the constr. state.
3. The tens from 30 to 90 are expressed by the plural forms of the corresponding, units (so that the plural here always denotes ten times the singular); as

 of common gender, and have no construct state. When units and tens are written together, the earlier writers commonly place the units first (e. g. turo and tuenty, as in Arabic); but in the later writers the order is almost invariably reversed (tuenty and two, as in Syriac). Exs. Num. iii. 39; xxvi. 14; 1 Chron. xii. 28 ; xviii. 5. The conjunction is always used.

The remaining numerals are as follows:-

200 -
300 ת

2000 dual.


[^98]| 10000 |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| 20000 | - |
| 30000 | 令, etc. |

Rem. 1. The dual form occurs in some of the units, with the effect of the English fold: as
 - [comp. Welsh ychylig] means some, some few, and also the seme (üdem); ninion decads (not decem), Ex. xviii. 21, 25.
2. The suffixes to numerals are, as with nouns, prop. genitives, though we translate them as nominatives, as

Sect. 98.
NUMERALS. II. ORDINAL NUMBERS.
The ordinal numbers from 2 to 10 are expressed by the corresponding cardinals with the termination $\because\left(\$ 86\right.$, No. 5 ), besides which another ${ }^{\circ}-$ is also sometimes


 The feminine forms have the termination $\Omega^{\circ}-$, rarely $\boldsymbol{n}_{-}-$, and are employed also

 fourth part.

For the manner of expressing other relations of number, for which the Hebrew has no appropriate forms, see Syntax, § 120.

## CHAPTER IV.

## THEPARTICLES.

Sect. 99.
GENERAL VIEW.

1. Tue particles, in general, serve to modify the thought expressed by another word or words, and to exhibit more nearly the relations of words, or of sentences, to each other. They are for the most part borrowed or derived ( $\S 30,4)$ from
nouns, a few from pronouns and verbs. The number of really primitive particles is very small.
2. The origin of those that are not primitive is twofuld; 1) they are borrowed from other parts of speech; i. e. certain forms of the verb, noun, or pronoun, are employed as particles, retaining more or less of their original signification, like the Lat. verum, causa, and the Eng. except, aucay; 2) they are derived from other parts of speech, either a) by the addition of formatice syllubles, like ETY by day, from (Y) (§ 100,3 ), or most commonly $b$ ) by abbreviation occasioned by frequent use. This abbreviation is effected in various ways; and many of the forms resulting from it are so obscure in respect to their origin that they have generally been regarded as primitives; c. g. Wू only (prop. certainly, certe) for

Compare in German, gen from gegen, Gegend; seit from Seite; weil (orig. a particle of time) from Weile $=$ our while ; in English, since (old Eng. sithence), till, contr. from to while.
Such words suffer still greater changes in the Greek and Latin languages, and in those derived from the Latin ; e. g. $\dot{a} \pi \grave{o}, a b, a$; $\dot{\epsilon} \xi, e x, e$; ad, Fr. $\dot{a}$; aut, Fr. ou, Ital. o; super, Ital. su.*

In some instances the particle has been so much abbreviated, that it has lost its character as an independent word, and has been reduced to a single letter preficed to the following word, as is the case with the preformatives of the Future ( $\S 47$, $1,2)$; e. g. the prefix ? from (§ 102 ).

That this reduction of a whole word to a single letter has actually taken place, and is to be regarded as a part of the process in the formation of the language, is evident from the fact, that in the subsequent stages of this process, as exhibited in the later Hebrew, the Aramwan, and all the Shemitic dialects, such abbreviations become more and more striking and frequent. Thus, for
 Rabbinic authors the full form later period became 7 ; in modern Arabic we have hallaq (now) from hilwaqt. lish (why?) from li-ayyi-sheïn, and many more. This view derives confirmation from the analogy of the Western languages. Yet the use of the simplest particles belongs to the earliest epochs of the Hebrew language, or at least to the earliest documents in our possession.

It is not strange that the derivation of these particles, which often differ widely from the original form, should sometimes be obscure. This is the ease, however, with only few of them; and it is but just to infer, that even in these some change has been effected analogous to that which may be readily traced in others.
3. Particles are also formed, but less frequently, by composition; as מַּוּוּ

[^99]

 . בִּ עַל כִּוֹ

Sect. 100.

## A D VERBS.

 [is] not, and some few others of place and time, as $\mathfrak{\square}$

These adverbs may at least, for grammatical purposes, be regarded as primitive, cven if it be possible to trace them to other roots, particularly pronominal roots.
2. Examples of other parts of speech, which, without any change of form, are used adverbially, are-
 alone (prop. in separateness), with suff. ? ? ? I I alone (prop. in my separateness);

b) Substantives in the accusative (the casus adverbialis of the Shemites, § 118),
 (this day), to-day; (union), together. Many of these substantives very seldom exhibit their original signification as nouns, e. g. סָבִּב (circuit), around; others have wholly lost it, as כֶּ עּ (length), long ago; עצר (repetition), again, farther, longer.
c) Adjectives, especially in the feminine (which answers to the neuter), as recte,



d) Verbs in the Infinitive absolute, especially in Hiphil, which are also to be regarded as accusatives (§ 130, 2); e. g. הַרְּה (prop. doing much), much.
e) Pronouns, as $\underset{\text { Iֶ }}{\text { (prop. this }=\text { at this place), here. }}$

See a list of the adverbs most in use, with their meanings, in § 149.
3. Other adverbs are formed by the addition of the formative syllable -- (more seldom■-) to substantives, as
 twinkling, from

The termination $\nabla_{\tau}^{-}, \square_{-}-$, occurs also in the formation of substantires like $i^{i}, i_{T}(\S 84$, No. 15); c. g.
regarded as denominative nouns used adverbially. But the $\square_{r}^{-}$is more probably nothing clse than the obsolete plural-ending of the noun (mentioned in $\S 87,1, d$ ), and these adverbs are properly nouns in the accusative plural, hence i. e. gratiis.
4. Adverbs formed by the abbreviation or mutilation of longer words; such, for

 which originated in the fuller form הֵל Deut. xxxii. 6.
 in § 153,2 ) ; 2) usually with Pathach and Daghesh forte (like the article) before a letter that has Sheva, as הַ Gen. xvii. 17, xviii. 21, xxxvii. 32, once without this condition, viz., הַטְ

 there? The place of this interrogative particle is always at the beginning of the clause.
5. Some adverbs, involving a verbal idea, admit also of pronominal suffixes, which are here used generally in the same form as with verbs, viz, with Nun
 עוֹרֶּ he (is) still; where (is) he? The same applies to and and behold!



Sect. 101.

## PREPOSITIONS.

1. Most of the words, which by usage serve as prepositions, were originally-
a) Substantives in the accusative case and in the construct state, so that the noun governed by them is to be considered as being in the genitive, which is actually indicated in Arabic by the genitive-ending: compare in German statt dessen, in
 (side*), close by; בּיּ (intermediate space, midst*), between; ; בַּ

 (that which is before), before, over against; עַ (progress, durotion*), during, until; עַ (upper part), upon, over; עִ (comexion, also (under part*), under, in place of.

[^100]b) Substantives in the construct state with preffix prepositions (spec. the insepar-

 the purpose), on account of.
2. Substantives used adverbially very readily take, in this manner, the con-

 proportion.

Sect. 102.

## PREFIX PREPOSITIONS.

1. Of the prepositions given in the preceding section, p is frequently written as a prefix, yet without wholly losing its Nun, which is represented by a Daghesh forte in the following letter, as from a forest.

On the ways of using i , the following particulars should be noticed. Generally it stands entire and apart only before the article, as Jer. xliv. 18, Pִ 1 Chron. v. 18, and elsewhere in the later books (like the usage of the Aramæan): there is besides a poetical form (comp. $\S 90,3, a$ ). More generally it is prefixed (as in in Pep by means of Daghesh forte, which can be omitted only in letters that have Shera (according to $\S 20,3 . b$ ); before gutturals it becomes (according to $\S 22,1$ ) e. g. מֵּ מֵּרָָם ;

2. There are also three other prepositions, the most common in the language, which have been reduced by abbreviation $(\S 99,2)$ to a single prefix consonant with the slightest vowel (Sh ${ }^{\text {eva) }}$; viz.-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { בin, at, on, with (from } \\
& \text { ! towards, to (from ss), }
\end{aligned}
$$

On the pointing of these [inseparable] prefixes we observe-
a) They have strictly Sheva, which is, howerer, changed according to the remarks in $\S 28,1,2$, thus,


b) Before the article they usually displace the $n$ and take its pointing, as an in the garden. See § 35, Rem.
c) Immediately before the tone-syllable, i. e. before monosyllables and words of two syllables that have the tone on the penultima, they have also Qamets ( $\$ 26,3$ ), yet not always, but only in the

[^101]following eases, a) before the Infinitives which have the fore-mentioned form, as for to give, צִרִין for to judge, for to bear, except another word (the subject or object belonging to it § 133)
 nominal forms (see $\S 103,2$ ); $\gamma$ ) when the word is closely connected with the foregoing and not the following,
 particularly at the end of a clause; see the instructive example in Deut. xwii. 8, likewise ne to eternity, but לְנִבֵּ נְצָחִים to all eternity Is. xxxiv. 10.
d) With the interrogative $\underset{\sim}{\mathrm{D}}$ they are quite closely joined by means of Pathuch and Daghesh forte, as $\boldsymbol{H}$ 帚 by what?


Rem. The word



## Sect. 103.

## PREPOSITIONS WITH SUFFIXES AND IN THE PLURAL FORM.

1. As all prepositions were originally nouns (§ 101), they are also united with the pronoun after the manner of the nouns, i. c. the pronoun in construction with them takes the form of the nominal suffix ( $\$ 91,1,2$ ), as (prop. my side) by me, אִּ (my proximity) with me, (my place) insteal of me, like mea causa, on my account.

Rem. 1. The preposition near, with (from תیֵּ), is distinguished from NN, the sign of the definite accusative ( $\$ 117,2$ ), when suffixes are added, by the difference of pointing, the former making יאֵּ, אֵּ, when , while the latter retains its original o before most of the pronouns, as 'תִּ me, , Yet in later books, particularly in the books of Kings and in Jeremiah and Ezekicl, nṣ with is



3. It is but seldom that prepositions take the verbal suffixes, as 'anh 2 Sam. xxii. 37, 40, 48 (for which we find (here for the sake of rhyming with ' certainly accounted for in this way, that the idea of direction whither is implied, so "nnon under-meward 2 Sam. (as above), which is somewhat different from put flesh in-to its place'), 'בַּנְרֵי around me hither.
2. There is a tendency to obviate the extreme brevity and lightness of the forms resulting from the union of the prefix prepositions ( $\$ 102$ ) with the suffixes, especially with the shorter ones, by lengthening the preposition. Hence to is appended the syllable 4 , and $\boldsymbol{i}$ is lengthened into (prop. a parte, from the

a) $\}$ with pronominal suffixes:


Takes suffixes in the same manner, except that for the 3 rd ers. plur. we have both בְּ בָּ
b) $\underset{ְ}{\text { with }}$ pronominal suffixes:


Plur.


-
c) with pronominal suffixes:

Sing.




Plur. from us. fan


* It has frequently been maintained, that the form tons have been given. An analogy might certainly be found in the it is, in fact, so used only with reference to collectives; see Gen. ix. 26 (in reference to Them = the Shemite), P's. xxviii. 8 , lxxiii. 10 (in reference to the people), Is. xiv. 15 (in reference to rendered $\theta \in o^{\prime}$ ), liii. 8 (in reference to the foregoing init his generation, i. e. He and his like).


 (human being). Yet this, too, is doubtless collective.
[It is proper to remark, that the use of לָׁמ for the sing. ib is still maintained by Ewald in his latest work, Ausführliches Lehrbuch der Heb. Sprache, Ste., Ausgabe, 1844. The same is maintained by other eminent scholars. -Tr.]
$\dagger$ Not ${ }_{i}{ }_{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{Y}$, which signifies therefore.
$\ddagger$ The use of $\urcorner$ for ${ }^{\circ}$ - here is simply for the sake of euphony.

The syllable in in
 again as independent words. In this case, poetry distinguishes itself from prose by the longer forms: in the case of $i$ ? it has adopted the shorter ones, resembling those of the Syriac.
 § 19, 2, Rem.), and is identical in form with from us, which comes from ? ? ? Phe Palestinian grammarians wanted to distinguish the last by writing it but Aben Esra, with justice,

3. Several of these prepositions, especially those which express relations of space and time, are properly plural nouns, like the Germ. wegen (for the ground of this, see § $108,2, a$ ).* They occur (some of them exclusively, while others have also the singular) in the plural construct state, or in connexion with those forms of the suffixes which belong to plural nouns (§ 91,2 ). These are-


-אֶ, poet. also אֶל (regions, directions), towards, to, with suff. always has to me,




מִ from, out of, seldom (plur. constr. st.), Is. גxx. 11.



 צin in also used in poctry.



## Sect. 104.

## CONJUNCTIONS.

1. Conjunctions serve to connect words and sentences, and to express their relation to each other. Most of them come originally from other parts of speech, viz.-

[^102]a) Pronouns, as and that, because, for, the first being the common relative pronoun, and the last also having come from a pronominal stem (§36).
b) Adverbs, as (not), that not, (num?), if. Also adverbs with prepositions; c. g. בְּטְּרֶ (in the not yet), before that; or with a conjunction added, as there is added that = much more or much less.
c) Prepositions which are fitted by the addition of the conjunctions and to show the connexion between prepositions ; c. g.
 as, still be employed in this manner, even when the conjunction is omitted ; e.g.


In like manner, all prepositions before the Infinitive may be rendered as conjunctions (§ 132, 2).
2. Even those words which are no longer in use except as conjunctions, seem to have belonged originally to other parts of speech, particularly nouns, and they generally betray their affinity with verbal roots, as (prop. desire, choice, from NTN to desire, comp. Prov. xxxi. 4) or, like vel, ve, kindred with velle; 证 (a turning away) that not. Even the only prefix conjunction ! and must perhaps acknowledge relationship with $\prod_{T}$ a fastening, a nail.

The pointing of the conjunction ? is in many respects analogous to that of the prefixes $\underset{\sim}{7}$, ? ? (§ 102,2 ), but as a feeble letter it has some peculiarities.
a) Usually it has simple Sheva (!).
b) Before words whose first consonant has simple Sheva (excepting the cases under c), Vav becomes the rowel $\hat{u}$, as ל.l. (see § $26,1, R e m$ ). It is also sounded thus (yet with the exception of the case under $d$ ) before its cognate letters, the labials $\mathcal{I}, ~ D, ~$; as and even before a Chateph (under letters not guttural), as Gen. ii. 12.
 it is sometimes pointed with Chireq or Seghol, as ונחיחֵּ Jos. viii. 4, and Gen. xx. 7 (comp. § 63, Rem. 5).
 with the same limitation ( $\S 102,2, c$ ), especially when words are connected in pairs, as in in in in
 vii. 13 , אואלה 1 Kings xxi. 10. It is otherwise when the word stands in close connection with
 the nature of which is to lean upon the following, as constantly

Sect. 105.

## INTERJECTIONS.

1. Among the interjections are several primitive words which are merely

2. Most of them, however, were borrowed from other parts of speech, which, by use in animated discourse, gradually acquired the character of interjections, as

 (perhaps for בִּי בִּ entreaty) I beseech, hear me ; now, I pray (in Nthiop, an Inp. well now! come), a particle of incitement and entreaty (which is put after the expression it belongs to) $\dagger$

* לְכָה stand connected, in this form, also with the feminine and with the plural, which shows that they have quite assumed the nature of interjections.
$\dagger$ The particle $\underset{\sim}{N}$ serves to express the most various turns of diseourse, which are exhilited in different parts of the Syntax. A short statement must here suffice. İ stands, a) after the Imp. in commanding as well as in entreating ( $\S 130,1$, Rem.) ; b) after the Fut. in the first as well as in the thirl person ( $\S 127,3, b$, and $\S 12 n, 1$ ); c) once after the Pret. ( $\$ 126,4$, in Note); d) after various particles, as $\mathbf{N}$ N conjunctions, discourse these partieles are very freely employed, Gen. xviii. $3 ;$ xix. $7,8,19 ; 1.17$.


## PART THIRD.

SYNTAX.

## CHAPTER I.

## SYNTAX OF THE NOUN.

Sect. 106.

## Relation of the substantive to the adjective,-of the abstract to the concrete.

In the Hebrew language, there is a want of adjectives in proportion to the substantives, and some classes of adjectives (e.g. those of material) are almost entirely wanting.* This deficiency is supplied by substantives, and especially in the following ways:-

1. The substantive employed to express some quality in another is placed after it in the genitive. This is constantly the case in designating the material, e.g. כְּרי עֶק vessels of silver = silver vessels; $\dagger \boldsymbol{\gamma}$
 of mumber = few men Gen. xxxiv. 30, אֶּ a precious stone Prov. xvii. 8. This construction was employed even in cases where the language supplied an adjective,


Rem. 1. Less frequently the substantive which expresses a quality in another is followed by it in the genitive, as xvii. 4; xxxrii. 24; Gen. xxiii. 6; Ex. xv. 4. With the substantive ל3 totality for all; this is the usual construction (see § 111, 1, Rem.).
2. Instead of an adjective which is to stand as the predicate of a sentence, the substantive is sometimes employed ; e. g. Gen. i. 2, the earth was desolation and emptincss ; Job iii. 4, let this day be darkness, Ps. xxxv. 6, lexxxiii. 19, cx. 3, Is. v. 12, Job xxiii. 2, xxxi. 13. More seldom the substantive takes a preposition; as in Ps. xxix. 4, the roice of Jehovah is in in power for powerful.

[^103]2. In Hebrew, many of our adjectives denoting a property, attribute, or habit, are expressed by circumlocution, viz, by an abstract noun or name of a thing, which designates the attribute, preceded by some general name of a person as the subject of the attribute. The subject is expressed by several words, viz.-
a) by xxiv. 5. b) by master, e. g.

骨 a worthless woman, 1 Sam. i. 16.

A bolder construction, and merely poctic, is the use of the abstract in place of the concrete, as翟 worthlessness for worthless, like scclus for scelestissimus; and the same time for the plural, as שֶֶׁ bow for bowmen, Is. xxi. 17. So far as this is a common characteristic of language, see § 83, Rem. 1.

Rem. That, on the contrary, forms of adjectives and coneretes often take the abstract signification, especially in the feminine, has been shown in § 81 ; comp. § $107,3, b$.

We may here remark, also, that the poets employ certain epitheta ornantia (which are at the
 strong, i. c. the bullock, in Jeremiah the horse; in the majestic, angust, for the prince: הן: the pale, i. e. the moon. In Arabic this is even far more common. Comp. merum for rinum, iरppi i. c. the sea, Odyss. i. 97.

Sect. 107.

## USE OF THE GENDERS.

Whether the Hebrew regarded a substantive as feminine is known partly from the feminine termination appended to it ( $\$ 80,1,2$ ), partly from its construction with a feminine predicate, and in most cases, though there are many exceptions $(\$ 87,4)$, from the use of the feminine plural form. We have now to show for what purposes the designation of gender was employed.

1. The most natural use of it was with reference to the physical distinction of sex in men and beasts, but with several gradations, according as this matural distinction is more or less strongly indicated. The principal cases are the following, viz., a) when the female is designated by an entirely different word, which, of

 of the feminine-ending, as mether, mins sister ; bhy youny man, mhery youny
 gender is shown only by the construction (commumiu), like $\dot{\delta}, \dot{\eta} \beta o \bar{s} ; ~ \dot{b}, \dot{j} \pi a i ̂$, as Ex. xxi. 37, but fem. for femule cattle Job i. 1.1 ; d) when, without regrard to the matural distinction of the sexes, only one form is employed in the same gender to
 of her young, Hos. xiii. 8 (yet it is construed as feminine in 2 Kings ii. 24 ); אַּמּוּ muse. o.r, Ps. cxliv. 14, where the cow is intended.

Writers often neglect to avail themselves of the definite indications of gender given under $a, b, c$, where they exist in the language, and use less distinctive terms, e. g. רin and
 ii. 21, comp. Job i. 19. Compare in German Gemahl for Gemallin; in Arabic, also, the more
 in later usage.
The same sparing use of the designation of sex appears also in other examples; viz., fins mase.
 2, 1); בִִּ a dead bodly (masc.), spoken of the corpse of a woman, Gen. xxiii. 4, 6; for a goddess, 1 Kings xi. 5, like Eng. frient, teacher, and Lat. unctor, martyr.
Among epiccone nouns are found names of whole species of animals, which the mind contemplated as masculine or feminine according as they appeared strong and powerful, or weak and timid; c.g. masc.

## 2. The most regular use is made of the feminine-ending for denoting the femi-

 nine gender, in the adjectives and participles. See $\S 87,5$.3. Besides objects properly feminine, there are others (nearly the same which in Greek and Latin are neuter) for which the feminine form is preferred, viz.-
a) Things without life, for which the feminine, as the weaker, seemed to be the most suitable designation, as פיצְּהֶ greare (from the resemblance).
b) Hence abstract ideas, which at least decidedly prefer the feminine form, even when the masculine is also in use; as abstractly or in a neuter sense (like tò кàòv), commonly take the fem. form, as the right, Ps. v. 10 ; so also in the plur. תiלiła great things, Ps. xii. 4.
c) At times the feminine form is applied, when a dignity or office is designated, which borders on
 in Neh. vii. 57, Ezra ii. 55. Even the feminine plural, nizs fathers, appears to have some reference to dignity. These words are, however, agreeably to their signification construed with the masc. This use of words prevails more extensively in Arabic, Athiopic, and Aramæan, e. g. in Culiph ה הליפ. A remote likeness is found in Lat. magistratus, Ger. Herrschaft (=Eng. lordship) for Merr (=Eng. lorl), Obrigkeit for Obercr, Ital. podesta, etc.






c) But on the contrary the feminine appears, as in Arabic, now and then to denote an individual of a class, when the masculine is used of the whole class, e. g. ', ? ships, feet (1 Kings ix. 26,

xx. 16); so also instances. But the difference is partly overlooked in the Hebrew usage.
4. Many words (besides certain names of objects properly feminine, No. 1, a) are distinguished by the feminine construction, without the characteristic ending. They are chiefly embraced in the following classes:-
a) Names of countries and towns, contemplated as mothers,* or nurses, of the inhabitants, e. g. hese fem. Assyria, fem. Illumea, רis Tyre; so also the appellative nouns which denote locality,
躬 threshing-floor, well, etc.; at times even

As numes of people are commonly masculine, it often happens that the same worl is used as masc. for the name of a people, and as fem. for the name of a country ; c. g. ה7ָin; musc. Jerrs Is.


But such a name is also even then construed as $f$ cm., when it is intended for the people, and this from a metaphorical nse (like the German Pohlen ist im Aufstande), Jobi. 15; 1 Sam. xvii. 21 ; Is. vii. 2 ; xxi. $2 . \ddagger$

 serviency as mere instruments,§ and hence also words for inanimate instruments and utensils, as
 many others. Most of these words and ideas have the same gender in the kindred dialects.
c) The words for light, fire, and other poucrs of nature, as sum, cisk fire (Jith. isat), in
 spirit, לֶֶֶּ breath and soul, etc. || .

Sect. 108.

## THE PLURAL AND COLLECTIVE NOUNS.

1. Besides the proper plural-endings ( $\$ 87,1,2$ ), the l:nguage employs some other means for the expression of plurality, viz., a) certain words, whose appropriate signification is collective, designating an indefinite mumber of a class of objects, and having their corresponding nomina unitatis, or nouns which designate

[^104]an individual of the class, as רiׁu an ox (an individual of the ore kind), ,
 indicilual of the same, a sheep or a goat (comp. in Eng. twenty people); b) the feminine ending $(\$ 107, .,, l) ; c)$ nouns which have the proper signification of the singular, but which are also used as collectives; e. g. Gen. i. 26, שִּ collect. for men, words, בָּ winc the enemy for enemies. These words take the article, when all the individuals of the class are included (\$ 109, 1). Comp. also $\S 107,3$, e
2. On the other hand, the terminations which properly express plurality are employed in the expression of other kindred ideas, so that the Hebrew often uses plural forms where other languages employ the singular. The plural is used to denote-
a) Extension*: of space and time; hence the frequent use of it to express portions of space, regions,



 lessness.

b) Wight and power, so far as these were originally conceived of as something distributed and complex (pluralis excellentia). So particularly we find arish God (whether the use of this word originated in a polytheistic view, and then passed over to the "God of gods," or in a monotheistic view, and as such was intended to denote God's might in its manifestations), then a few times a pa the Holy (God) Hos. xii. 1; Prov. ix. 10; xxx. 3 (comp. Jos. xxiv. 19, and Chald. |  |
| :---: |

 xix. 13, 16. Further of the land Gen. xlii. 30; so also בַּעַ master with suff. often

Rem. 1. The use of the plural, according to letter $b$, is very limited, and does not extend beyond the abore words, which are used also in the singular as well. On the construction of these plurals with adjectives, see $\S 112,1$, Rem. 3 ; with verbs, in $§ 146,2$. On Rem. 4.
2. The plurals under $a$ are also limited in common prose to few words, but in poetry there is a
 and many others.

[^105]3．When a substantive is followed by a genitive，and this compound idea is to be expressed in the plural，it is done，a）most naturally by the plural form in the
 minite，plur．בִּ בָּ

 families Num．i． 2 foll．，（ which has hitherto been overlooked by grammarians，compare also Judges vii． 2.5 （the head of Oreb and Zeeb for the heads）， 2 Kings xvii．29，Dan．xi．15．Here the two words，by which the compound idea is expressed，are treated as a nomen compositum．＊

The connexion with suffixes is also effected according to letter $c$ ，as $\boldsymbol{W}$＇\＄os corum for ora cormm Ps．xvii．10，：ִִיָּ Ps．cxliv．8，where we also can say their mouth， their right hand．

4．To the modes of expressing plurality belongs also the repetition of a noun， with or without the corjunction．By this is indicated the whole，all，every，as Er Dr day by day，every day，


 nothing but asplalt－pits， 2 Kings iii．16；Joel iv．14；finally，diversity，more then
 Deut．xxv．13，לֵב וָּלֵ a double heart Ps．xii．3； 1 Chron．xii． 33.

Not here but to rhetoric belongs impassioned repetition in exclamations（e．g．Jer．xxii．29；Is． vi．3）．With many writers this appears to have but little emphasis，and to have become a habit （c．g．Is．xl．foll）．

Rem．1．Names of substances riewed as wholes（e．g．the metals，liquids，ete．）very seldom oceur
 plural，but in Arabic it is singular）．But when the word is used to express portions of a suhshance，
 timber（for building or burning）．So of grain，as n⿶凵⿱乛龰⿱丆贝：wheat（growing in the field），wheat in the grain．

2．Even in eases where the plural is regarded as merely poetic，we are to connect with it the idea of real plurality，e．g．Job xvii．1，the graves are my portion，equisalent to grare－yard，many graves


[^106]Sectr. 109.

## USE OF TIIE AR'TICLE.

The article ( $\boldsymbol{N}, ~ \underset{T}{ }$, § 35 ) was originally a demonstrative pronoun (as in other, e. g. the Romance, languages, comp. $\dot{\delta}, \dot{\eta}$, to $^{\prime}$ in Homer) ; yet its force was so slight that it was used almost exclusively as a prefix to the noun.

The stronger demonstrative force of (this) is still found in some connexions, as and the chay,
 particular, a) the fact, that sometimes it stands for the relative before the verb, e.g. הְְַּ are found, 1 Chron. xxix. 17 ; xxvi. 28 ; Jos. x. 24 ; Ezra viii. 25 ; comp. Gen. xviii. 21 ; xlvi. 27 ; Job ii. 11; and so הֶעֶלִיה i.q. 1 Sam. ix. $24 ; b$ ) the case where it is employed, mostly before a participle, to connect and to point back to a subject noun, in order to make it again

 Is. xl. 22,23 ; xlvi. 6 ; Gen. xlix. 21 ; Job xli. 25 ; and still more forcibly in l’s. xviii. 33 , דָּ

The article is employed with a noun to limit its application in nearly the same cases as in Greek and German (or English); viz., only when a definite olject, one previously mentioned, or already linown, or the only one of its kind, is the subject of discourse ; e. g. Gen. i. 3, God said, Let there be light (ר世゙), ver. 4, and God saw the liyht ( (אֶ) ; 1 Kings iii. 24, Bring me a sword, and they brought the suord;
 Besides these examples, see Eccles. i. 12, I am king (מֶֶ) over Jerusalem.

In such definite cases the article can be omitted only in poetry, where it is used,
 - Min Pi. 2.

Special cases in which the article is commonly employed, are-

1. When a general word is used collectively to denote all the individuals belonging to it, as the righteous, the unrighteous, Eccles. iii. 17; the woman for the female sex, Eccles. vii. 26; the Canaanite, Gen. xiii. 7; xv. 19, 20, like the Russian, the Turk.*
2. When a common term is applied by way of eminence to a particular person, and thus becomes a kind of proper name, like o тomtís (Homer), as
 the first man, Adam ; דָּרזל

[^107]word אֵלהּ is often so used without the article, because it approaches the nature of a proper name, $\S 110,1$ ); הַָּּדָר the river, i. e. the Euphrutes; the region around, viz., that around the Jordan.
3. Hence it is used also with actual proper names of rivers, mountains, and of many towns, with reference to their original appellative signification (comp, the Hague, le Harre), as הַיָּ the Nile (prop. the viver), Lebunon (prop), the white mountain), ${ }^{\Downarrow}$ דָד the town $A i$ (prop. the stone-heap). But its use in connexion with names of towns is unfrequent, and in poetry is generally omitted. (Comp. §110, 1).

Rem. 1. The Hebrew article certainly never stands for the indefinite article; but the Hebrew conceives and expresses many ideas definitely, which we are accustomed to conecise and express indefinitely. This is most commonly seen-
a) In comparisons, where fancy paints the image of an object, and causes a more distinct perception, e. g. white as the wool, as the snow, rech as the scarlet Is.i. 18, as the cultle Ps. xlix. 15, he hurls thee like the ball Is. xxii. 18, the heavens are rolled up like the scroll xxxiv. 4; comp. x. 14; xxiv. 20 ; xxsii. 10 ; liii. 6; Ps. xxxiii. 7. Instructive examples in Judges xiv. 6 ; xvi. 9 ; Is xxix. 8. Yet where the noun compared is already made definite by an adjective, the article does not stand any more than when genitive follows, e. g. ine Is. . . 11,
 ב
b) In the names of classes of objects which are generally known, e. g. the gold, the sitver, the e cattle, the uater. Hence Gen. xiii. 2, Abruham was rery rich in the cattle, the silver, amt the gold, where most languages would omit the article. He had much, is the Hebrew's conception, of these well-known treasures. Comp. Gen. xli. 42 ; Ex. xxxi. 4 ; xxxs. 32; Is. i. 22.
c) Often also in the expression of abstract ideas (like to imanóv, lu motestie), hence of physical and moral evils, as the blinduess Gen. xix. 11, the durliness Is. 1x. 2, the fulsehood Is. xxix. 21.

On these principles, it is easy to explain the use of the article in special cases, as in I Sam. xxii. 34, יָּ the lion, as the well-known enemy of the flocks (comp, tor dinov, Juhn x. 12 ;
 lated it happened on a day, but the day, (at) the time, viz., as referring to what precedes.
2. The rocative also takes the article, and for the most part in those cases where it is ustally


Sect. 110.

## The article is regularly omittel*

 people, when it comeides with the name of the founder of the race or the name of

[^108]
 (collect. § 109, 1).
2. Before substantives, rendered definite by a following genitive or a suffix,
 my fother.

When the article is by way of exception used in these two cases, some special reason can generally be assigned for it ; e. g.
a) In some cases the demonstrative power of the article is required; as Jer. xxxii. 12, I gave this bill
 clause הַהֶּנְ the (other) half thereof, Is. ix. 12.
b) When the genitive is a proper name which does not admit the article (according to No. 1), as

 (comp. xlviii. 1).
c) In others the connexion between the noun and the following genitive is somewhat loose, so that the first forms a perfect idea by itself, while the second conveys only a supplemental idea relating to the material or purpose, as
 Jer. xxv. 26.
3. Before the predicate, which from its nature is indeterminate, as Gen. xxix. 7, עעד הַיצם נָּדוּלול yet is the day great, it is yet high day; xxxiii. 13; xl. 18; xli. 26 ;


Yet there are cases where the nature of the predicate requires the article, Gen. ii. 11 הוּא it is the cncompassing, i. e. that which encompasses; xlv. 12, שִּ דִּ that my mouth (is) the speaking $=$ it is my mouth that speaketh; Gen. xlii. 6; Ex. ix. 27; Num. iii. 24. Sce another case where the article stands before the predicate in $\S 109$, beginning.

Sect. 111.

1. When a compound idea, expressed by a noun in the constr. st. followed by its genitive, is to be made definite, it is done by prefixing the article to the noun

 word of the prophet Jer. xxviii. 9 .

The article is put in the same way when only the genitive, and not the nomen regens, is definite, as $\begin{gathered}\text { a } \\ \text { ancern a part of the field } 2 \text { Sam. xxiii. } 11 \text { (see on the contrary Jos. xxiv. 32, Gen. xxxiii. 19), }\end{gathered}$
 we usually find another construction, in order to aroid the ambiguity, sce $\S 115$.
N.B. This explains the use of the article after prop. totality, the whole. The article is inserted after it to express definitely all, whole (like tous les hommes, toute la ville), and is omitted when it is
used indefinitely for of all kinds, any thing, or distribntively for crery (tout homme, à tout prix); * c. g.敢 stones of ull kinds 1 Chron. xxix. 2,


Even compound proper names may be resolved again into two words, and then the second takes
 1 Sam. xvii. 58.

Fxceptions where the article stands before the governing noun and not before the genitive, see in § $110,2,6$. So in the later style, Dan. xi. 31 ; comp. xii. 11.
2. When the substantive has the article, or (which is equivalent) is made definite by a following genitive or a suffix, then the adjective, as well as the pronoun it, Niln (§122, 1), belonging to the substantive, takes also the article. Gen. x. 12,



Not quite unfrequent is the use of the article-
a) With the adjective alone, which then serves to make the noun definite, e. g. הivan Gem. i. 31, day the sixth $=$ the sixth day (on the contrary 'יָּ Ps. lxii. 4 ; civ. 18 ; Neh. iii. 6 ; ix. 35 ; Zcch. xiv. 10 . So also This is the usual construction, when the adjectivo is properly a participle, as Jer. alvi. 16, the sword that dooth violence.
b) With the substantive only, as in Eze. xxxix. 27; 2 Sam. vi. 3 (perhaps to be amented) ; yet rather frequently in comexion with the pronouns $\boldsymbol{N}$ ה and n , which are sufficiently definite of themselves.

 indefinite is report); compare Num. xiv. 37; Gcn. xlii. 19, ,

## Sect. 112.

## CONNEXION OF THE SUBSTANTIVE WITH THE ADJECTIVE

1. The adjective, which serves to qualify the substantive, stands after it, and
 made definite (according to § 111,2 ). Comp. § 117, 2.

Rem. 1. It very seldom occurs that the qualifying adjective stands before its substantive: when this is the case, some emphasis rests on it, as Is. xxviii. 21 ; liii. 11 ; P's. lxxxix. 51 ; cxll. 7 ; com-
 shields for strong shields (comp. ver. 22; Is. xxxv.9) ; or with a collective noun in-tead of the plural,

2. When substantives of the feminine gender or those which incline to it ( $\$ 107,4$ ) take two adjectives, the feminine form sometimes appears only in the one which stands nearest the substan-

* What is here said of hisplies also to its Gireck equivalent, mûs; e. g. müor is molas the whale city (Matt. viii. 34), but $\pi$ âca $\pi$ ódes ceery cily (Matt. xii. 25) - Trt.
 § 147, Rem. 1.
N.B. 3. In regard to mmber, the nouns in the dual take adjectives in the plural, as nimp lofly eyes Prov. vi. 17 ; P's. xviii. 28 ; Job iv. 3, 4; Is. xxxv. 3. Moreover, the constructio at sensum is freyuent. Collectives are construed with the plural in 1 Sam. xiii. 15; Jer. xxviii. 4; but the
 (but with the plur. 1 Sam. xvii. 26).

2. An adjective, when its meaning is more fully determined by a substantive,

 (Comp. the construction of the Participle, $\S 132$.) In the same manner are often construed the participles and verbal curjectives, only that they govern also the cases of their verbs; see $\$ 135$.
3. On the adjective as predicate of the sentence, see § 144 foll.

Sect. 113.
APPOSITION.

1. By this is meant the placing together of two substantives, so that one of them (commonly the second $\dagger$ ) serves to limit or qualify the other, as a woman (who is) a widow, 1 Kings vii. 14; בנעֶרֶה בְתוּלָה a damsel (who is) a virgin,
 the first of the two substantives has the form of the constr. st., see $\S 116,5$.

Also two adjectives may stand in apposition, in which case the first modifies the sense of the
 white red (bright red) spot.

## Sect. 114.

## THE GENITIVE.

1. It has been shown above ( $\$ 89$ ) that the Hebrew regularly expresses the genitive relation by making the noun in the genitive dependent upon, and elosely comected with, the nomen regens in the constr. st. A genitive is always

[^109]dependent only upon one governing noun. The language avoids, also, letting a noun in the constr. st. be followed by several connected genitives, but, instead of
 the God of the heavens and the God of the earth. But several genitives may follow in succession when they depend on each other. Even then the repetition of the constr. st. has indeed often been avoided (see § 115), though this was not always

 of the mighty ones of the children of Kedur, Is. xxi. 17.*

In these examples (comp. also Is. x. 12, Job xii. 24 and others) all the nouns but the last are in the construct state. Yet we find also examples where the genitives, being subordinate to the main thought and scrving merely as a periphrasis for the adjective, stand in the cubstute stute, while ouly the following genitive is dependent on the main thought. Thns, in Is. xxviii. 1, i.. the fut valley (prop. valley of futness) of the smitten of wine, 1 Chron. ix. 13 ; 1's. lxviii. 22.

Similar but rare is the case when a noun has first an adjective and then a genitive after it, as $i z \mathrm{y}$
 a large crown of gold, Esth. viii. 15.
2. The noun in the genitive expresses not only the suliject, but at times also the


 \% y you the report about Tyre; comp. also $\S 121,5$. Other applications of the

 swom by Jehovah 1 Ki. ii. 43.
3. Not unfrequently the genitive construction stands also in the place of appo-


Rem. 1. Between the noun in the constr. st. and the following genitive is fomml, in some rare eases, a word intervening, as in Ilos. xiv. 3 ; 2 Sam. i. 9 ; Job xxwii. 3 (in all these passages the word intervenes after לذ, comp. also Is. xxxriii. 16).
2. Proper numes, as being in general of themselves sufficiently definite, seldom take a genitive

 for Jehorah the Lord of hosts.

[^110]
## Sictr. 115.

## FiNPRESSION OF THE GENITIVE BY CIRCUMLOCUTION.

Besides the indication of the genitive relation by the construct state (see in § 89 , and §114), there are certain periplurestic indications, chicfly by means of the preposition ?, denoting the relation of belonging, which is not unlike that of the genitive. Accordingly, we find-
 xlvii. 4, the flock of her futher (prop. the fock which to her father belonged); and also where there wonld be several successive genitives (to avoid the repetition of the constr. st., but see $\S 114,1$ ), as
 song of songs of Solomon Cant. i. 1; Gen. xl. 5; 2 Sam. ii. $8 ; 1$ Chron. xi. 10. (Hence the Rab-
 usual sign of the genitive.)
2. ? (without
 governing (or first) noun is expressly regarded as imdefinite, e. g. לִיֶ? a son of Jesse 1 Sam. xvi. 18 (whereas

 him as the author), and elliptically $\begin{gathered}\text { ל ל ל of of } \\ \text { of }\end{gathered}$ on one substantive, c. g. .
 לی.i.! Josh. xix. 51, where the pairs of more closely-connected nouns which form one conception are joined by means of the constr. state, while there is between them the indicating a looser
 the seven und twentieth duy of the month, Gen. viii. 14.

Sect. 116.

## FURTHER USE OF THE CONSTRUCT STATE.

The construct state, as it serves in general to put two nouns in close connexion, is, in the flow of speech, used not only for the genitive relation, but also-

1) Before prepositions, particularly in poetry, and mostly when the governing word is a participle, e. g. before 马, as

[^111]
 in Judges v. 10.*


 1 Sam. xxv. 15, Ps. xc. 15 . Comp. § 123, 3, Rem. 1.
4) Rarely even before Vav copulative, as הָבמִּת וָרַעַּת Is. xxxiii. 6, xxxy. 2, li. 21.
5) In appositions (viz., where an actual genitive relation cannot be supposed,



6) Also in other cases where close connexion is to be expressed: thus, at times we have אֲחֵּ one for 2 Sam. xvii. 22, Zech. xi. 7, Is. xxvii. 12; and moreover Is. xxviii. 4, 16. Compare besides the constr. st. in the numerals as in thirteen, fourteen ( $\$ 97,2$ ), and in the adverb ( $\$ 100,2, c$ ).

Rem. While in the above cases the absolute st. could in general stand quite as well as the construet, there are yet also constructions where the constr. st. might be expected rather than the absolute. Thus, for example-
 to distinguish it from other places called Abel). Comp, on the contrary. § 114. Rem. 2.
b) In some other instances where the comexion is not close enough for the genitive relation, so that it must rather be considered as apposition, or the second noun as an adverbial accusative
 knees; Is. xxx. 20,
 hosts.

Sect. 117.

## indication of the other cases.

1. As the Hebrew language has lost the living use of case-endings (§90), we must consider what substitutes it adopted for expressing the different relations of case. The nominative is always to be known only from the syntactical construction.
[^112]On the morles of expressing the genitive，see $\$ \$ 114-116$ ．Other cases are peri－ phastically expresed by means of prepositions，the datice by ？，the ablative by （from，out of ），and the locative and instimmental by $\underset{\sim}{3}$（in，at）；but the Shemite regrards the nomms dependent on these prepositions as genitives，because these particles were themselves originally nomns．In Arabie they have also the genitive termination．Comp．§ $101,1$.

On the use of the dative particle ？，in so far as it serves to express also our genitive，sce § $115,1,2$.

2．The accusative，when expressing direction or motion to a place，has still fre－ quently its ending $\overbrace{\text {－}}(\S 90,2)$ ．Else it is，like the nominative，to be known only from the structure of the sentence．I et we may often know it by the preceding －グ or Mix（before suffixes also クis），which，however，is not used before a noun except when that noun is made definite by the article，the construct state，a suffix， or otherwise（Gen．vi． 2 ； 2 Sam．xiii．17，xviii．18），or is a proper name．Such is the usage in prose，but not so much in poetry；c．g．Gen．i．1， （on the contrary，

The cases are rare in which stands before an indeterminate noun，but somewhat oftener in the loftier style，where the article also may be omitted before a noun that is definite according to the sense（§109），as Prov．xiii．21，Ns，Is．1．4，Job xiii．25，Eze．xliii．10．Very seldom in prose，like 1 Sum，xxiv．6，Lix．ii． 1 （where，however，the noun is made definite by the context）． （See also Ex．xxi．28，Num．xxi．9）．

Sect． 118.

## USE OF THE ACCUSATIVE．

The accusative is employed，1）to express the object of the transitive verbs （ $\$ 138$ ）；but also，2）in certain adverbial designations，where it is no longer governed immediately by the verb．We shall here treat only of the latter．

[^113]The second of the above usages is undoubtedly derived from the first, and to this still belong several constructions in which the accusative is commonly supposed to be used adverbialty ( $\$ 138$, 1, Rem. 3). But we are not therefore authorised to reject altogether the adverbial use of the accusative.

Accordingly, the accusative is employed-

1. In designations of place; a) in answer to the question whither? after verbs
 to go to Tarshish 2 Chron. xx. 36, Ps. cxxxiv. 2;* $b$ ) in answer to the question where? after verbs of rest, as בֵּית הָבִּ
 to space and measure, in answer to the question how fur? Gen. vii. 20, the water rose fifteen culits.

In both cases, of $a$ and $b$, especially the first, the accusative-ending $\Pi_{\nabla}$ is often appended, on which see $\S 90,2$. The first relation may also be expressed by (as it commonly is with reference to persons), and the second by $\neq$ but we are by no means to suppose that, where these particles are omitted, the construction is incomplete.
2. In designations of time; $a$ ) in answer to the question uhlen? as ane duy,
 at noon Ps. xci. 6; ;שְֶׁu the thirteenth year (in the 13 th yeur) they

 Ex. xx. 9. [With תی in Ex. xiii. 7; Deut. ix. 25.],
 to the throne will I be greater; 2 Sam. xxi. 20, four and twenty
 i. e. with one roice; Zeph. iii. 9, they served God
 Job i. 5, he brought burnt-offerings

 Comp. also § 116, Rem. $l$.

Similar cases in connexion with verbs are explained, § 138 and § 139. By the same process, carried still farther, many substantives have come to be distinctly recognised as adverbs (§ 100, $2, b)$.

Rem. Similar reference to place, time, ete., may be denoted by a noun when it is connected with $\underset{\sim}{\text { ( a }}$ (ascorling to, after the manner of , but in that case the prefix 2 alone is in the accusative

[^114]relation, while the noun is to be considered in the genitive. Thus, a) of pluere; as as in their pasture, Is. v. 17 , comp. xxviii. 21 ; 路 after the manner of the stone i. e. us in stome (the water is

 as in the day, Is. ix. 3; Hos. ii. 5 ; "כִּיִֵ as in the dlays of 一, Hos. ii. 17 ; ix. 9 ; xii. 10; Anos ix. 11 ; Is. li. 9 ; e) with another reference, as in Is. i. $25, I$ will purge away thy dross 7 끌


Rarely another preposition is used after such a $\underset{\sim}{3}$, e. g. בִּבְ
It is, moreover, obvious that a substantive with $\underset{\rightarrow}{?}$ may stand either for the accusative of the object or for the nominative relation.

## Sect. 119.

## MODES OF EXPRESSING THE COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE.*

1. When the comparative is to be expressed, the particle $\dagger(\underset{)}{ }(\underset{y}{*})$ is prefixed to the word with which comparison is made, e. g. 1 Sam. in. 2, מָּ

 taller than any of the people, 1 Sam. x. 23 ; Nan he loved Joseph more than all his (other) sons, Gen. xxxvii. 3.

In other cases also the particle is employed in expressing pre-cminence (e.g. קיְ preeminence orer, Eccles. ii. 13; comp. Deut. xiv. 2), which the Hebrew conceives as a taking from, marking out. Compare the Latin ablative with the comparative, also the etymology of the Latin words eximius, eyregius, and in Homer éк $\pi \alpha ́ v \tau \omega \nu \quad \mu a ́ \lambda \iota \sigma \tau a$, Il. iv. 96, and merely $\notin \kappa \kappa \pi \sigma \epsilon \in \omega \nu$, xviii. 431). Hence the signification more than connects itself with the fundamental signification out from. (Compare the use of
The predicate is sometimes wholly omitted, and must be supplied from the con-



The correlative comparatives, such as greater, less, are expressed only by great, little, Gen. i. 16.
2. The several modes of expressing the superlative are in principle the same; thus, in all of them the positive form, by means of the article, or a suffix, or a fullowing genitive, is made to designate an individual as pre-eminently the pos-

[^115]sessor of the quality expressed (comp. le plus grand); e. g. I Sam. xrii. 14, and David was
 (lit. their great one), even unto the least among them (lit. their little one); 2 Chron. xxi. 17, קְקטוֹ the youngest of his sons.



## Sect. 120.

## SYNTAX OF THE NUMERALS.

1. The numerals from 2 to 10 (which are properly substantives, but may also be used adverbially, $\S 97,1$ ), are connected with substantives in three different ways. They stand either, a) in the constr. st. before the substantive (the olject mumbered being accordingly in the genitive), days; or, $b$ ) in the alsol. st. before it (the thing numbered being then considered
 st. after it, as in apposition with the object numbered (a usage of the later books, where the adverbs also are so construed), בָּנוֹ xxv. 5.
 years, are equally common.
2. The numerals from 2 to 10 are joined, with very few exceptions (e. g. 2 Kings xxii. 1), with the plural. But the tens (from 20 to 90 ), when they precede the substantive, are regularly joined with the singular (in the accusative), and when they follow it in apposition, they take the plural. The first is the more frequent construction; e. g. Judges xi. 33, , עֶ tuenty citiss; on the con-
 the first case (Ex. xxxvi. 24, 25), but the singular never occurs in the secome.

The numerals from 11 to 19 are joined to the singular form (in the accusative) only with certain substantives, which there is frequent occasion to number, as $\operatorname{ci}$ day, y, your, wan, cte.
 With this exception, they are joined to the plural; and in the later books they then stand after the substantive ( 1 Chron. iv. 27 ; xar. 5).
3. Numerals compounded of tens and units (like 21,62 ) take the olject num-
 sixty-two years, Gen. v. 20; or before them in the plural, as in the later books
(1)an. ix. 26); or the object is repeated, with the smaller number in the plural,

 seven years.
4. Beyond 10, the ordinals have no peculiar forms, but are expressed by those of the cardinals, which then stand either before the object numbered, or after it,
 year twenty-seven 1 Kings xvi. 10. In the latter ease, the word repeated, as in Gen. vii. 11; 2 Kings xiii. 10. In numbering days of the month and years, the forms of the cardinals are used, even for the numbers from 1 to 10 ,

 the month, Gen. viii. 13; Lev. xxiii. 32.

Rem. 1. The numerals take the article when they stand without a substantive, and refer to
 seren days, Judges xiv. 17, is to be explained on the principle stated, § $111,1$.
2. Certain substantives employed in designations of weight, measure, or of time, are commonly

 ten (loaves) of bread. Thus a is omitted Gen. viii. 5, and nitio vii. 13. The number of cubits is often stated thus, בֵּאָּ בָָּּ a hundred cubits, prop. a handred by the cubit, Ex. xxvii. 18.
5. Numbers are expressed distributively by repetition of the cardinals, as Bử two by two, Gen. vii. 9, 15. One time, once, is expressed by tread), wexpo times, twice, the wame may be denoted also
 once, Num. x. 4. The ordinals are employed in the same way, as תִּנִ a second time, Gen. xxii. 15; Jer. xiii. 3; Eze. xxi. 19.

CHAPTER II．
SYNTAX OF THE PRONOUN．

Sect． 121.
use of the personal pronoun．
1．When a personal pronoun is the subject of a sentence，like a noun in the same position，it does not require for its union with the predicate a distinct word for the copula，when this consists simply in the verb to be（§ 144），c．g．．
 upright（wast）thou Eze．xxviii．15，שִּ שִּ that naked they（were）Gen．iii．7，


2．The pronoun of the third person frequently serves to comnect the subject and predicate，and is then a sort of substitute for the copula or the verb to be；e．g． Gen．xli．26，the seven good coves
 third person refers to a subject that is of the first or second person，e．氏．ボit in号 thou art my king Ps．xliv．5，where Nat the same time points to the predi－ cate and makes it prominent（prop．thou（art）he，my king）；Is．xxxvii．16；Neh． ix．6，7；Deut．xxxii．39．（Comp．in Chaldee Eara v．11．）

3．To the general rule（ $\$ 33,1$ ），that the separate pronouns are in the nomi－ native and the suffixes in the oblique cases，there is but one exception，vi\％，when the personal pronoun in an oblique case is to be repeated for the sake of cmphasis （ $m e$ ，me；thy，thy），it is expressed the second time by the separate form，which is then in the same case with the preceding suflix，to which it stands in apposition；
 xxii．19；oftener in the genitive，with a nominal suffix xxi．19，thy blood，yea thine（prop．sanguis tui，utique tui），Prov．xxiii．15；Ps．ix． 7. So also in apposition under the influence of a preposition（i．e．in the genitive， according to $\S 101,1$ ，comp．$\S 154,4$ ），as Hag．i．4，ธתָ a f for you，you； 1 Sam． xxv． 24 ， xxxv．21，On the same principle is to be ex－ plained Gen．iv．26，לְיֵׁת גַּם הוּא to Seth，even to him；x． 21.
4. The suffice to the verl is properly always in the accusative ( $\$ 3.3,2, a, \S 58$ ), and is the most common form of expressing the accusative of the pronoun (see Rem.). In certain cases, however, it is used throngh an almost inaccurate brevity

 me as to a futher, Eze. xxix. 3 comp. verse 9.
liem. The accusative of the pronoun must be expressed by (§ 117), the sign of the
 Num. xxii. 33 ; b) when the verb has two pronouns in the accusative, only one of which can be a suffix, as ini in 2 Sam. xv. 25 . The use of this sign with the pronoun is found, however, in other eases; see Gen. iv. 14; xv. 13.
5. The suffixes to nouns, which are properly genitives ( $\$ 33,2, b$ ), and supply the place of possessive pronouns,* express, like nouns in the genitive ( $§ 114,2$ ), not only the subject but also the object; e. g. 'הֶמָּ the wrong done to me, Jer. li. 35; Mภָּ̦י' the fear of him, Ex. xx. 20.
6. When one noun is followed by another in the genitive, so that they together express but one complex idea, a suffix which refers to this whole idea is appended to the sccond of the two nouns (compare the analogous position of the article, $\S 111,1$ ). This occurs most frequently in the case (mentioned, § 106, 1), where the second noun is used to express a quality of the first, and serves for an adjective



We seldom have constructions like הְְָ ! So also Lev. vi. 3; Ps. xxx. 8.

Rem. 1. Through a certain inaccuracy, which probably passed from the colloquial language tc that of books, masculine pronouns are sometimes used in reference to feminine substantives (Gen. xli. 23; Ex. i. 21). The reverse also occurs, but more rarely, Deut. v. 24; 2 Sam. iv. 6.
2. The accusative of the pronoun, as object of the verb, is often omitted, where it can be easily supplied from what has preceded, e. g. the accusative it, after verbs of saying, as like dixit, he said it, Ex. xix. 25 ; 7 7 Ill and he told it, Gen. ix. 22 ; but also after other verbs, e. g. Gen. xxxviii. 17, till thou send (it); xxiv. 12, let (it) meet me.
3. There is, on the contrary, a redundancy of expression, when the noun, for which the pronoun stands, is itself employed in apposition after it, e. g. Ex. ii. 6, she sazv him, the child ; Prov. r. 22,
 to it, the living creature; and with repetition of the preposition Josh. i. 2.

[^116]4. In some instances the force of the nominal suffix or possessive pronoun has become so weal, that it has almost ceased to exist ; e. g. 'נָּר゙ my Lord (prop. my lorls, see § 108, 2, b), viz., in addressing God (Gen. xv. 2, xviii. 3; Ps. xxxv. 23), but then without regard to the pronominal suffix, the Lord, meaning God;" (prop. in his or its connexions $=$ he, it toyether), c. g. וּרֶTM 1 Kings iii. 18; comp. Is. xli. 1, after the second person in Is xlv. 20. Similar is-hear, ye nations Micalı i. 2.

## Sect. 122.

## THE DEMONSTRATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN゚S.

 $e a, i d ; i i, e a, e a$ ) is also used as a demonstrative pronoun, and then it takes regularly (sce exceptions in $\$ 111,2, b$ ) the article, but almost everywhere in comec-
 [comp. in vulgar English, in them days for in those days].

When employed in this way, Nis is be distinguished from the demonstrative $\pi$; for $\pi=$ ovitos, hic, always points to an object present or near, but $\boldsymbol{N}$ ה $=$ aúrós, is, indicates (like the article. § 109) an object already mentioned or known [the former answering to this, and the latter nearly to that]. The distinction is clearly seen in Judges vii. 4, of whom I say to thee, "(his ( $\mathrm{n}_{\mathrm{y}}$ ) shatl go with thee," that one (NN) shall go with thee; and of whomsoever I say to thee, "this (i!) shull not gr" with thee," that one ( $\mathfrak{N}$ ) shall not go. So also in Ps. xx. 8, Hence הַּהֶ but אַה (that day) means the day or time, of which the historian has just made mention (Gen. xv. 18 ; xxvi. 32), or the prophet just predicted (Is. x. 30 ; vii. 18, 20), and goes on to relate or to predict.
2. The demonstrative (also ir , Yi ) has also, especiatly in poetry, the force of

 $\S 123,1$ ) to give a relative sense to mother word; e. g. Ps. l.xiv. 2, Mount Zions Y צּ ֶix on which thou divellest.

ֶֶ is used adverbially, a) for there,



 reference to things, yet only when the idea of persons is implicel, e. g. are the Shechemites? Judges ix. 28 ; comp. Gen. xxxiii. 8.- " may also stand in

[^117]the genitive, as anhose drunghter? Gen. xxiv. 23. It is also used indefinitely for any one whocer, and מָּ for any thing whatever (Job xiii. 13). For מָּ in this


On the use of por in the sense of negation, see § 153, 2, p. 239, Note.*

Sect. 123.

## relative pronoun and relative clauses.

1. The pronoun relative signification to adverls or pronouns; e. g.
 manner, the Hebrew forms the oblique cases of the relative pronoun, who, which, viz.-
 uhom.

 from.

The accusative whom may, however, be expressed by תֻּ alone, as in Gen. ii. 2.
Rem. 1. The Hebrew is able in this way, to give a relative sense to the pronoun of the first and second persons in the oblique cases, for which in German (and English) the third must be used;
 chosen; Hos. xiv. 4. But in the nom. of the 1st and 2nd persons, this is admissible also in German, e. g. der ich, der du, die wir, where der stands for weleher, and serves (like the Heb. $\mathfrak{V}$ as a sign of relation.
2. The word words, as 2 Chron. vi. 11.
3. The relative pronoun frequently includes the personal or demonstrative pronoun he, she, that, for which the Heb. has no appropriate word (see § 124, 2), as in Latin, qui is stands for qui; c. g. Num. xxii. 6, רָּ
 pronoun is almost always to be supplied where a preposition stands before the preposition is then construed with the supplied pronoun, and the relative takes the case which is required by its comexion with the following part of the

 who, that which, or those who.*

Sometimes the idea of place or time is also to be supplid; as מֵּשְשֶׁ from (that time) when.
3. The pronoun may be omitted in all the cases which have been specified: there is then no expression of the relative, as in the English construction the friend I met; the book I told you of; where the only indication of relation is, that the relative clause is added to a preceding word, in the way of apposition. This omission of (most frequent in poctry) takes place-
a) Where it would stand as a pronoun in the nominative or accusative; e. g.
 כַּ
 Eccles. x. 5 (comp. vi. 1, where with the sane words is cmployed). $\dagger$
b) When it would be merely a sign of relation, e. g. Ps. xxxii. 2, luppy the
 xviii. 20. Frequently in specifications of time, when it would have the signification when; Ps. iv. 8 , שַׁת דְגָנָם וְתִירוֹטָּם רַבּוּ in the time (when) their corn and new wine are abundant; Jer. xxxvi. 2.
c) When there is also an omission of the personal or demonstrative pronoun
 Job axiv. 19, Sheol [carries away] (those who) sin; comp. vs. 9. The pronoun thus omitted may include the idea of place or time, as 1 Chr. xr. 12,

Rem. 1. When the pronoun to be supplied would be in the genitive, the preceding noun takes the constr. st.; e.g. Ex. iv. 13,萑 the specech (of one whom) I knew not; lxv. 5; Lam. i. 14; Jer. xlviii. 36. Comp. § 116, 3.
2. Relative clauses are joined on also by means of the copula (!), e. g. Job xxix. 12, the orphan, iל וְלֹא ע! ind that hath no helper.

[^118]Sect. 124.

## MODE: OF ENPRESSING THOSE PRONOUNS FOR WHHCH THE HEBREW Has NO PROPER FORMS.

1. The reflexive pronoun in the oblique case, myself, thyself, himself, is expresserl, a) by the conjugations Niphal and Hithpael, see $\$ 51,2, \S 54,3 ; b)$ by the pronominal suflix of the 3rd pers.,* e. g. הֶרֶ (sihi) a suord ; Gen. xxii. 3, Abraham took two of his servants \$-Ṇ with him, for with himself; viii. 9; 1 Sam. i. 24, she carried him up העִ with her, for with herself; Jer. vii. 19; Eze. xxxiv. 2, 8, 10. In like manner is the pronoun suus, sua, summ expressed by the pronominal suffix of the 3rd pers. with the noun, since signifies as much equus suus (prop. sui, genit.) as equus ejus ; c) by circumlocution with substantives,



The Arabic, in a similar manner, expresses the idea self by soul, spirit, and so the Sanskrit (âtman); the Arabic also by eye; the Rabbinic by head; the Egyptian by mouth. $\dagger$ Comp. in middle High German mîn lip, dîn lip.
2. The personal or demonstrative pronoun is generally omitted (comp. 123, 2) lefore $\begin{gathered}\text { צֵּ in all the cases, both singular and plural: very seldom it is expressed }\end{gathered}$ hy the interrogative pronom, as that which, Eccles. i. 9; iii. 15.

Rem. 1. Each, every one, with reference to a person, is expressed by tre a man, sometimes
 by כֹ, commonly without the article ( $\$ 111,1$ ); by repetition the plural בלִּקְרִ? every morning, l's. lxxiii. 14.
2. Any one, some one, is expressed by טִּ Ex. xvi. 29 ; Cant. viii. 7; and by thing, something (especially in connexion with a negation), by $\bar{\sim}$, Comp. besides, § 122, 3.
3. Self is expressed, independent of No. 1, c, in reference to persons or things, by Nin, as

 same time (but this signifies also that man, at that time, comp. §122, 1). In reference to things, the noun ע y prop. bone, body (in this case fig. for essence, substance), is also employed as a peri-
 his cery prosperity, i. e. in the midst of his prosperity, Job xxi. 23.

 friend; both the masc. and fem. forms are used also with reference to inanimate objects of the same

[^119]gender．See the Lex．under these words．The same form is used to express one another，as Gen． xiii．11，and they separated，
 sense of these words．）

5．Some is often expressed by the plural form alone，as E゙p゙ some days Dan．viii．27，ロ’： years Dan．xi．6，8；and sometimes by

## CHAPTER III．

SYNTAX OF THE YERb．
Sect． 125.
USE OF THE TENSES IN GENERAL．
From the poverty of the Hebrew language in the means of expressing the absolute and relative divisions of time（ $\$ 40$ and 48），we might naturally expect some variety in the uses of the same tense．

We are not to infer from this，however，that there was scarcely any well－defined and regular use of the two existing tenses ；on the contrary，each of them has its distinct sphere，as already intimated in the first Note in § 47．The Preterite serves to express what is finished and past，whether it actually belongs to the past，or properly lies in the present or even in the future，and is only represented ats past， that it may thus appear as certain as if it had already happened，or that it may stand，as relatively carlier，in comparison with a subsequent event．The Future ［called also Imperfect and Tempus Infectum］，on the contrary，expresses what is monfinhed，hence what is continued and in progress（even in the past），what is coming to pass and about to be．The Future is，besides，especially used in it modified form（\＄48）for expressing the relations of the Optative，the Jussive，and the Subjunctive．We must further add the peculiarity of the Hebrew diction already mentioned in§ 49 ，viz，that of joining，by means of lio conversire，Futures to a Preterite and Preterites to a Future．Fuller information on these points will be found in the following sections．

It is a false view，which regards the so－called Preterite and Future not as tenses，but as designal originally to express distinction of mood＊rather than relations of time．

[^120]As examples of the Preterite and Future used expressly to denote opposite relations of time, we
解 I have spoken it, and will bring it to pass; I have purposel, and will accomplish it; Deut. xxxii. 21 ; Nah. i. 12; 1 Kings ii. 38.

Sect. 126.
THE USE OF THE PRETERITE.

## The Preterite stands-

1. In itself and properly, for absolutely and fully past time (Prcteritum perfectum), e. g. Gen. iii. 10, 11, מִּ whe who has declared to thee? vs. 13 , why hast thou done this? Comp. verses 14, 17, 22. Hence it is used [for the historic tense] in the narration of past events, Gen. i. 1, in the beginning God created (Pret.) the heaven and the earth (comp. iv. 1; xxix. 17). Job i. 1, there was (Pret.) a man in the land of Uz ; ii. 10.

For this latter purpose, the Future with Vav conversive is commonly used in continued narrative (see § 129, 1).
2. For the Pluperfect. Gen. ii. 2, vs. 5, Jehovah had not yet caused it to rain ; vii. 9 ; xix. 27 ; xx. 18 ; xxvii. 30 ; xxxi. 20 ; Jonah i. 5.
3. For our Present, where this denotes, a) a condition or attribute already long


 a permanent or habitual action (often in statements of general experience), e. $g$. -タn $I$ say, I mean, Ps. xxxi. 15, Job vii. 13.-Ps. i. 1, happy the man who walks



Here (in the expression of our present) the Preterite and the Future are used with equal propriety, according as the speaker views the action or state expressed by the verb as already existing before, but still continuing or perhaps just now ending, or as then first about coming to pass, in progress, or perhaps oceurring at the instant (comp. § $127, \underset{2}{2}$ ). Accordingly, we find in nearly the same sense $\mathfrak{N}^{i}$,
 are often cmployed interchangeably, e. g. Is. v. 12 , Prov. i. 22, Job iii. 17, 18.

[^121]4. Even for the Future, in protestations and assurances, in which the mind of the speaker views the action as already accomplished, being as good as done. In German [and English] the Present is sometimes used, in this case, for the Future. So in stipulations or promises in the way of a compact, Gen. xxiii. 11, I give ( to thee the field; vs. 13, I give ( נָתַּתִּ) money for the gield; particularly in promises made by God, Gen. i. 29, xv. 18, xvii. 20. Also in confident discourse, especially when God is said to be about to do something, (perhaps, with reference to the
 thou deliverest me, 0 Jehovah, Ps. xxxi. 6; hence frequently used in lively representations of the future, and in prophecies, e. g. Is. ix. 1, the people who wulk. in
 verses $14,17,25,26 ;$ xi. $1,2,4,6,10$. (In these cases also the Preterite may be interchanged with the Future, see, e. g., Is. v. 12; Prov. i. 22; Job iii. 17, 18.

In Arabic, the Preterite, made still stronger by the particle 7 P. is likewise employed in emphatic promises, etc. They say, I have already given it to thee, meaning, it is as good as done. A similar usage is that of the Lat. perii, Gr. ö入 $\lambda \lambda a$, $\delta \iota$ '́ $\phi \theta$ opas. (II. 15, 128).
5. For those relative tenses, in which the past is the principal idea, viz., a) for the Imperfect Subjunctive (which is, however, expressed by the Fut. also, § 127, 5); e. g. Is. i. 9, we should have been [essemus] as Sodom, we should have resembled Gomorrha; Job iii. 13; b) for the Pluperject Suljunctive,
 (i) with the Future would be, if we might but die! § 136, 2); Judges xiii. 23;

 away, prop. he has washed away; vi. 11.-Gen. xlii. 14, ambereaved (for, if I shall be, ubi orbus fuero), then I ambereaved (the languare of desponding resignation).
6. In all the foregoing cases, we have viewed the Preterite in its independent use, when not connected with preceding verbs. But its use is no less diversified, when it is joined to preceding verbs by the conjunction ( (Vav conversive of the

[^122]Preterite). It then takes the tense and mood of the rerb going before, and it shifls the tone forward, as explained above in $\$ 49,3$. Hence it stands-
a) Most frequently for the Future, when that tense goes before it, e. g. Gen. xxiv. 40, Jeheveh will send his anyel then he prospers). Judges vi. $16 ; 1$ Sam. xvii. 32. Here the Future, in the progress of the discourse, passes over by means of the Pret. into easy description, and the sense of the Pret. follows the usage explained in No. 4 above; also-
b) For the Present Subjunctive, when the preceding Future form has this sense
 his hand and tale and eat (prop. and so takes and eats); xxxii. 12; xix. 19; Num. xv. 40; Is. vi. 10.
c) For the Imperative, when a verb in that form goes before; e. g. Gen. vi. 21, קַnan take for thyself and gather (prop. and then thou gatherest); Gen. xxvii. 43,$44 ; 1 \mathrm{Ki} . \mathrm{ii} .36$. As in the case under letter $a$, the command here passes over into a description of that which is to be done. At times the Pret. in this sense is put separate from the $V a v$, as in Ps. xxii. 22.
d) For the past or the present time, according as the preceding Pret. or Fut. may require.

Rem. 1. The Pret. with Vav comr. relates to futurity, also when it is not preceded by a Future

 xxxix. 27. After a partieiple whieh relates to futurity $1 \mathrm{Ki} . \mathrm{ii} .2$.

The Pret. with Vav conv. may be thus employed in the sense of the Fut. (and Imp.), even when there is no indication of futurity, e. g. after antecedent clauses which imply, a) a cause, or, b) a con-
 I will bring him; and without the cansal particle, Gen. xx. 11, there is no fear of God in the place

 if I have found favour $\overbrace{T}$ ?
 lo, this touches thy lips of the present we find appended by means of ! with the Pret. those of the future (e. g. Judges


 and will you let them rest? Gen. xxix. 15; 1 Sam. xxv. 10, 11).
 of history) is $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{T}}$ ? ? and it will come to pass. This is found both with a preceding Future and without


Sect. 127.

USE OF THE FUTURE.
The significations of the Future are perhaps still more various than those of the Preterite. But the language has here a more definite expression for certain relations of mood, inasmuch as it has (according to §48) a shortened and a lengthened form of the Future, the former in the jussive sense and the latter in the cohortative (see § 128). The Vav conversive also has a very extensive influence on the force of this tense ( $\$ 129$ ). Yet the shortening, as has been shown in treating of the verb, is not obvious in all the forms, and in other respects, also, there is some uncertainty, so that the common form occurs in almost all the relations, for which the shortened form is especially designed.

The Hebrew Future forms, in general, the exact contrary of the Preterite, and expresses, accordingly, what is unfinished, what is coming to pass and future, but also what is continued and in progress at any point of time, even of the past (see the first Note on §47).

Hence the Future stands-
 be a flood; also in narrative for the future with relation to some past point of time, as 2 Kings iii. 27, the first-born who was to reign (regnaturus crat).
 cannot bear. Gen. xxxvii. 15. It is employed especially in the expression of permanent states, which exist now and alway's will exist, hence also in the expression of general truths (where the Pret, also is used, but less frequently, $\$ 126$, B, a, b, ), e. g. Gen. xliii. 32, the Eyyptians may not eat with the Helreers; ; Juh iv. 17, is man more just thun God? ii. 4; Prov. xv. 20, בָּ בִּ dens a father; and very often so in Jub and Proverbs.

In the same formula is used sometimes the Preterite, and sometimes the Future but not necessarily without difference of meaning, e. g. Job i. 7, Nבּ xvi. 8, בָּ whence didst thou come?
3. For a series of relations which in Latin :ure expresed by the Suhjunctive, especially by the Present Subjunctive. In this way is expressed what is future or what is expected to occur, according to a suljective view or according to some other condition. It stinds-
a）For the Subjunctive after particles signifying that，that not（ut，ne），as





b）For the Optative；Job iii．3；איאבּ pereat dies；vs．5，6，8；vi．9．In this sense the lengthened or shortened form is properly used（ $\S 128,1,2$ ），
 cease－！！יְבֶּר־נָה עַבְדִּף Gen．xliv．18，might thy servant speak，for let thy serrant speak；ver．33，יֵּשֶׁבָּ may he now abide．Yet，at times，the full form is employed even where the shortened one clearly exists，e．g．חֵּרֶM let

c）For the Imperative，the place of which it always supplies in negative com－ mands（prohibitions）．When it expresses prolibition，it is preceded by $\boldsymbol{N}^{i}$ ל，
 N fear not Gen．xlvi．3；Job iii．4，6， 7 （and in this comexion with לs the jussive or shortened form is proper to be used，$\S 128,2$ ）．It is also used for the Imperative when the third person is required，and for the Imperatives of the passive voice，so far as the forms of these are not in use （see §46）；e．g．רצ゙ Ex．xxxy．2， 1 Ki．ii． $24 . \quad$ Comp．§ $128,2$.
d）For the so－called Potential，where we use may，can，might，could，ought，etc．；

 （deeds）that ought not to be done．
4．Even for time past．It is thus used chiefly in these cases：
a）After the particles iș then，$\ddagger$ שֶּ not yet，
 not yet；Gen，xxxvii．18；בְּטֶרֶם ּתֵּּ before thou comest forth，（priusquam

[^123]exires), Jer. i. 5. (Compare the use of the Pret. and Fut. in the same sentence, 1 Sam. iii. 7.)
b) Often also of customary or continued action, and in extended representation, like the Imperfect of the Latin and French languages. Repeated or customary action, as it involves the conception of something unfinished and yet to be, is
 xxii. $6,7,8$; xxix. 12,13 ; Judges xiv. $10 ; 1$ Sam. i. $7 ; 1$ Kings iii. 4 (a
 Yet also-
c) Of single acts that are done and past, where the Preterite might be expected. Such is the case, at least, in poetry, on the same principle as we employ the Present tense in lively representations of the past. Job iii. 3, perish the day,
 from the womb? iv. $12,15,16 ; \mathrm{x} .10,11$; very notable also is Judges ii. 2.
5. For the Imperfect Subjunctive, especially in conditional sentences (the modus conditionalis) both in the protasis and apodosis. Ps. xxiii. 4,7
 unto God (were I in thy place); ix. 21, I should not know myself (if I spoke otherwise); x. 18, I had died, and no eye had scen me; iii. 16; vi. 14. In this case, also, the shortened form is properly used $(\$ 128,2, c)$.

Sect. 128.

## USE OF THE LENGTHENED AND SHORTENED FUTURE (COHORTATIVE AND JUSSIVE).

1. The Future as lengthened by the ending $\boldsymbol{H}_{\boldsymbol{T}}$ (the Cohortative) is used almost exclusively in the first person; and is expressive of purpose or endearour (see $\S 48,3)$. Hence this form is employed, $a$ ) to express excitement of one's self, or a determination, spoken with some degree of emphasis. Ps. xxxi. S, ה

 and see; Gen. xxxii. 21. b) To express a wish, a request (for leave to do some-
 pass through, I pray thee. c) When a purpose is expressed, and the verb is commonly joined by ? to a preceding Imperative; Gen. xxvii. 4, bring it hither, הָ̦N.. and I will eat $=$ that I may eat; xxix. 21 ; xlii. 34; Job x. 20. Less frequently, d) it stands in conditional sentences with if, though, expressed or implied, Job
xvi. 6 ; xi. 17; Ps. cxxxix. 8. Moreover, it stands, e) frequently after Vav conversive ( $\$ 49,2$ ).

In Jeremialh this form is used to give foree and emphasis of almost every kind; iii. 25; iv. 19, 21; vi. 10 .
2. The shortened Future (the .Jussive) is used principally, a) in the expression
 sistut Jer. xxviii. 6, לו? by ? (comp. No. 1, c), Ex. viii. 4, intreat Jehovah that he may take away; x. 17 ; Judges vi. 30; 1 Kings xxi. 10; Esther vii. 2
 xxiv. $8 ; 1$ Ki. ii. 6 ; אַלֹתַשְׁn destroy not Deut. ix. 26 , in the tone of entreaty Now Job xv. 31, xx. 17.* c) Frequently in conditional sentences (like the Arabic usage) both in the protasis and apodosis. Thus, Ps. xlv. 12 (יִחָּ) ; civ. 20 ( (

 Vav conversive (§49, 2).

As the jussive form of the Future is far from being always orthographically distinguished from the usual form ( $\$ 48,4$, and $\S 127,3, b, c$ ), its force may occasionally be doubtful, especially as the poets now and then employ the shortened form where the usual one might stand without materially altering the sense, e. g. Ps. xxv. 9. The jussive form, in that case, expresses rather a subjective judgment, such as we indicate by it may be, it might, could, should, must be, according as the sense and context of cach passage may require.

## Sect. 129.

## USE OF THE FUTURE WITH VAV CONVERSIVE.

1. The Future with Vav conversive (לטppl! and he killed, §49, 2), stands only in connexion with something preceding. Most commonly a narrative begins with a Preterite, and then procceds in the Future with Vav conversive; which is the
 Eve his wife, and she conceived and bare (וֵֵֵּרֶ) Cain; vi. 9, 10, etc.; x. 9, $10,15,19$; xi. $12-15,27,28$; xiv. 5 , etc.; xv. 1,2 ; xvi. 1,2 ; xxi. 1 , etc.; xxiv. 1,2 ; xxv. 19,20 , ctc.; xxxvi. $2-4$; xxxvii. $2 . \ddagger$

[^124]2. If there be, however, any connexion with an earlier event, the Fut. with Fuv conv. may even begin a narrative or a section of one. In this case we find a very



This use of the Future is found also, especially, a) after an antecedent clause, e. g. after becouse, as in 1 Sam. xv. 23, becuuse thou hast rejected Jehorah's zord 7 xxxiii. 10 ; after since ( $\mathfrak{Y}$ ) Job iv. 5 ; $b$ ) after an absolute noun, e. g. 1 Kings xii. 17, as to the


The Vav. conv. (1) may be rendered that in sentences like the following: Ps. exliv. 3, what is man
 thou '1? that thou shouldest be afraid? But the idea in the former passage (Ps. cxliv. 3) is this, how insignificant is man! and yet thou dost notice him.
3. As to the relations of time indicated by this Future of consecution (sce Note *, p. 83), we may remark that, in accordance always with the preceding tense, it may refer-
a) To the present time, viz., in continued descriptions of it, when preceded by a Preterite (in the sense of a Present), Gen. xxxii. 6; Is. ii. 7, 8; Jub vii. 9; xiv. 2; or a Future (as a Present), Job xiv. 10; 1 Sam. ii. 29; or a Participle, Nah. i. 4; 2 Sam. xix. 2 ; Amos ix. 6.
b) Less frequently to futurity, when preceded by a Preterite (as a Future), Is. v. 15,16 , xxii. 7,8 ; Joel ii. 23 ; Micah ii. 13 ; Ps. cxx. 1 ; or by a Jussive, Joel ii. 18, 19; or by an Imperatice, Ps. l. 6 (also when joined to a clause without a verb, e. g. Gen. xlix. 15, or to an absolute noun, e. g. Is. ix. 11, or when it turns to the future, e. g. Is. ii. 9, ix. 13).

The form יִַיְ stands for then had been in dependent clauses after wh, e. g. Is, xlviii. 18, 19 ; and 7 wivi in a conditional clause, c.g. Ps. cxxxix. 11 and (if) $I$ should say (comp. the common Future, § 127,5 ).

## Sect. 130.

## THE IMPERATIVE.

1. The Imperative expresses not only command in the strict sense, but also exhortation (Hos. x. 12), entreaty (2 Kings ․ 23, sometimes with Nj, verse 22 ;
and he begat, x. 1. So also in this sentence, on the thired duy wonld be, it happened on the third day that-, Gen. xxii. 4; Is. xxxvii. 19; vi. 1.

 xxxix. $13,15,18,19$; Judges $x$ xi. 16, , 25. See the numerons passages in Gesenius's 7her. Ling. Hebr. p. 372. In a similar way, we fond ${ }^{\text {I }}$, used of the Future in $\$ 126, \mathrm{Rem} .2$.
$\dagger$ On the sentences which begin with the Infinitive or Purticiple, and then proceel with this Future of consccution. see § 132, Rem. 2, and § 134, Rem. ‥

1s. v. 3), wish (P's. viii. 2, and with th, Gen. xxiii. 13), permission (2 Sam. xviii. 23 ; Is. xlv. 11). It is employed especiatly in strony assurances (comp. thon shatt luare it, which expresses both a command and a promise) ; and hence, in prophetic declarations, as Is. vi. 10, thou shult make the heart of this people hard, for thou wilt make. 'These may be either, a) promises, P's. cxxviii. 5, thou shalt see (רִ) the prosperity of Jerusalem; Is. xxxvii. 30; lxv. 18; Ps. xxii. 24; Gen. xx. 7; or, b) threatening.s Is. xxiii. 1, houl, ye ships of Tarshish, for ye shall (will) honel ; vs. 2, 4, x. 30, xiii. 6. In all these cases the use of the Imp. approximates much to that of the Fut., which may therefore precede (Gen. xx. 7; xlv. 18) or follow it (Is. xxxiii. 20) in the same signification.

In nearly all its significations, the Imperative is enlivened or strengthened by the addition of the particle $\mathfrak{N}$ sage! (§105), thus, in the sense of command, both the milder (do now this or that), e.g. Gen. xxiv. 2, and the sterner or menacing, e. g. Num. xvi. $26 ; \mathrm{xx} .10$; and in the sense of entreaty,
 xlvii. 12.
2. We may, from the above, explain the peculiar use of two Imperatives joined by and; a) where they are employed in a good sense, the first containing an admonition or exhortation, and the second a promise made on the condition implied in the first (like divide et impera), e. g. Gen. xlii. 18, shall) live ; Prov. ax. 13, keep thine eyes open (be wakeful, active), and thou shalt have plenty of bread; Ps. xxxvii. 27 (comp. vs. 3); Prov. vii. 2; ix. 6; Job xxii. 21 ; Is. xxxvi. 16 ; xlv. 22 ; Hos. x. 12 ; Amos v. 4,$6 ; b$ ) where a threat is expressed, and the first Imp. tauntingly permits an act, while the second denounces
 be dismayed; Is. xxix. 9. Instead of the second Imp. the Fut. also may be used; Is. vi. $9 ;$ viii. $10 ; 1$ Sam. xvii. 44.

Rem. 1. How far the Pret. and Fut. may be employed to express command has been shown in § $126,6, c, \S 127,3, c$, and § $128,2$.
2. It is incorrect to suppose that the form of the Imp. is used, as some grammarians maintain, for the third person (let him kill). Among the examples adduced of this usage is Gen. xrii. 10,
 the Infinitive which gives the same sense, $\S 131,4,6$.) Equally mistaken are the other examples, riz., Ps. xxii. 9 (ל; Inf.); Gen. xxxi. 50 ; Judges ix. 28; Is. xlv. 21 (in the last three passages we have actual Imperatives of the 2 nd person).

[^125]Sect. 131.
USE OF THE INFINITIVE ABSOIUTE.
The Infinitive absolute is employed, as has been remarked in $\S 45,1$, when there is oceasion to express the action of the verb by itself, neither comnected with something following nor dependent on a preceding noun or particle.* The most inportant cases of its use are-

1. When it is governed by a transitive verb, and consequently stands as an accu-
 בּטּ until he learn to refuse the evil, and choose the good; Jer. ix. 4. Here, however, the Inf. constr. is oftener used, with or without a preposition, always according to the construction of the preceding verb, § $142,1,2$.
 slaying (prop. to slay) oxen, the slaughtering sheep, the eating flesh, the drinking wine (where the Infinitives are mere accusatives governed by behold!) Is. r. 5, I will tell yow what I will do to my vineyard wall,-q. d. that will I do.
2. When it is in the accusative and used advertially $\dagger$ (in Latin as gerund in do); e. g. הֵיטֵב bene faciendo for bene, הַרְבּבּה multum faciendo for multum. Hence3. When it is used for emphasis in comexion with a finite terb:
a) It then stands most commonly before the finite verb, to which it gives, in
 besought of me; Gen. xliii. 3, he strictly charged us (הָגָּ הַּבִּר) A very clear example is in Amos ix. 8, I will destroy it from the face of the carth, except that
 Its effect is often merely to give a certain prominence to the thought contained in the finite verb,-which in other languages is done chiefly by the tone of the voice or by particles, -as in assurances, questions (such especially as express excitement in view of something strange and improbable), and contrasts; (ien.


[^126]
 kill thee ; 1 Sam. ix. 6; 2 Sam. xxiv. 24 ; Hab. ii. 3.
b) When the Inf. stands after the finite verb, this connexion gencrally indicates


 went going on and lowing, for they steadily went on lowing; 1 Kings xx. 37. Instead of the second Inf., a finite verb is sometimes used (Josh. vi. 13), or a participle (2 Sam. xvi. 5).

Rcm. 1. This usage in regard to the position of the Inf. is certainly the common one, though not without exceptions. It sometimes follows the finite verb which it strengthens, when the idea of repetition or continuance is excluded by the connexion. Is. xxii. 17 ; Jer. xxii. 10 ; Gen. xxxi. 15 ; xlvi. 4; Dan. x. 11, 13. In Syriae, the Inf. when it expresses intensity stands always before, and in Arab. always after, the finite verb.-When a negative is used it is commonly placed between the two (Ex. v. 23), seldom before them both (Gen. iii. 4).
2. With a finite verb of one of the derived conjugations may be connected not only the Inf. absol. of the same conjugation (Gen. xvii. 13 ; xl. 15), but also that of Kal (e.g. טָרֶּ טֹרַּ Gen. xxxvii. 33 ; Job vi. 2), or of another of the same signification (Lev. xix. 20 ; 2 Kings iii. 23).
3. In expressing the idea of continuance (letter $b$ ), the verb ${ }^{7}$ is frequently employed, with the signification to go on, to continue on, and thus denotes also constant increase; e.g. Gen. xxri. 13,

 e. g. 1 Sam. ii. 26, הַנַעַר שְׁמוּאֵל הלֵך וְגָּרל וָטוֹב the child Samuel went on increasing in stature and in goorlness; 2 Sam. iii. 1.) A similar mode of expression is found in the French : le mal va toujours croissant, la maladie ra toujours en augmentant et en empirant, grows worse continually.
4. When it stands in place of the finite verb. We must here distinguish the two following cases, viz. -
a) When it is preceded by a finite verb. This is frequent, especially among the later writers, in the expression of several successive acts or states, where only the first of the verbs employed takes the required form in respect to tense and person, the others being simply put in the Infinitive with the same tense and person implied. (Comp. § 121,3.) So with the Pret. Dan. ix. 5, מָרַדְנו וְסוֹר we have rebelled and (we have) turned away; Gen. xli. 43, he caused lim to ride
 With the Fut., Jer. xxxii. 44, they will buy fields for money (Fut.), and urrite and seal bills of sale, and take witnesses (three Infinitives), Num. xv. 35.

[^127]b) It may stand at the beginning of the sentence, without a preceding finite verb. The Infinitive (being the pure abstract idea of the verb) may serve as a short and emphatic expression for any tense and person, which the comnexion requires; c. g. it stands a) for the Pret. in lively narration and description, like the Latin
 the table, to set the watch, to eat, to drink (sc. this they do), for they prepare, etc.; lix. 4; Hos. iv. 2; Eze. i. 14 ; Job xv. 35. Also, $\beta$ ) for the Fut. in its proper sense. 2 Kings iv. 43 , אָּוֹל וְהוֹתָר to eat and to leare thereof (sc. ye shall do); $\gamma$ ) most frequently for the emphatic $\operatorname{Im} \%$., as Deut. v. 12. . thou art to, ye are to); so Ex. xx. S, קָּר to remember (oughtest thou); hence,
 Colortative Is. xxii. 13, אָּ to cat and to drink! (sc. let us eat and drink); 1 Kings xxii. 30 to disguise myself and go (will I do).

Rem. 1. The Inf. for the finite verb is seldom found in connexion with the subject, as in Jub xl. 2; Eze. i. 14.
2. The examples are also few of the Inf. constr. employed in these cases. Such are Is. 1 x . 14. where it is used adverbially like the gerend in do; it is connected with a finite verb in Neh. i. 7


Sect. 132.

## INFINITIVE CONSTRUCT

1. The Inf. constr, as a verbal substantive is sulpect to the same relations of case with the noun, and the modes of indicating them ( $\$ 117$ ) are also the same. Thus, it is found, a) in the nominative as the subject of the sentence, Gen. ii. 18, not good (lit. the being of man in his. sipuration) that man
 is to be referred the case where the Iufinitive is dependent on a preposition (as
 ציצה I Inow not (how) to go out and to come in, prop. I knowe not the going out and coming in. (In this case the Tuf. alsol. may also be used, § 131, 1.)
2. For the construction of the $\operatorname{Inf}$. with prepositions, as in the Greck in tê ivat, the German [and English] languages gencrally employ a finite vert with a conjunction which expresses the import of the preposition; c. g. Num. xxxv. 19, שַׁל צָּמרך because thou sayest, prop. on account of thy sayming. Gen. xxvii. 1, his cyls uere dim מןראֹא so that he could not see (comp, the use of before a noun to express distance
from, and the absence or want of a thing). The lexicon must be consulted for particular information on the use of the different prepositions.
3. With respect to relations of time, the Infinitive refers also to the past (comp. on the Participle, $\S 134,2$ ), e. g. Gen. ii. 4, בְּהּבּרְ when they were created (prop. in their being created).

 Niבל and the sun was about to go down. Hence, it serves for a periphrasis of the Fut., 2 Chr. xxvi. 5,
 xxi. 1, Eccles. iii. 15, Prov. xix. 8, comp. xvi. 20. 2) It is to do for it must be done (comp. I am to



4. The Hebrew writers frequently pass from the Infinitive construction (deseribed in No. 2) to the use of the finite verb, before which the mind must then supply a conjunction answering to
 because he pursued-and stifled his compassion; Gen. xxvii. 45; a Fut. with Vav conv. in
 commonly a Fut. with only ! prefixed, as in Is. v. 24, x. 2, xiii. 9, xiv. 25, xxx. 26. (Comp. the participial construction, § 134, Rem. 2.)

Sect. 133.

## CONNEXION OF THE INF. CONSTRUCT WITH SUBJECT AND OBJECT.

1. The Infinitive may be construed with the case of its verb, and hence, in




 to do judgment. $\dagger$ In like manner it takes the accusative of the pronouns, e. g.



[^128]v. 10; xxviii. 9; 1 Chron. xii. 17 ; Gen. xxv. 26, pareret. If the finite verb governs two accusatives, then they will be employed
 thee all this Gen. xli. 39.

The same construction takes place with a verbal noun analogous to the Infinitive,
 יֵ̣i to fear me Deut. v. 26, Is. xxx. 28, lvi. 6.*
2. The subject of the action is commonly put immediately after the Infinitive, sometimes (where the Inf. is regarded rather as a substantive) in the genitive, but generally in the nominative; c. g. 2 Chron. vii. 3, רֶשָ the descending of the

 people). The genitive relation of the subject is quite plain after Infinitives of
 are very mumerous; Gen. xix. 16, also when it is expressed by a suffix, like "בִּקְ when I call, Ps. iv. 2, 4 (yet nlso
 genitive is excluded, and the subject to be considered rather in the nominative



 אהּ whether seventy men rule orer you, or one man rules over you? Job xxxiv. 22,
 further in No. 3.
3. When both subject and object are connected with the Infinitive, the rule is, that the subject should come immediately after the Inf., and then the ohject. When the latter is plainly in the accusative, the subject is then put, as in No. 2, sometimes in the genitive, but chiefly in the nominative. The genitive (which prevails in Arabic) appears, e. g., in Dent. i. 27 , because Jehorah

 but the nominative is found, e. g. in Is. x. 15, , as if the rod could shake them that lift it up (where we should have had $\mathfrak{y}$, if

[^129]genitive). Accordingly the subject is usually to be considered in the nominative, as 1 Kings xiii. 4, as the king lueard the word of the man of Ciod. Gen. xiii. 10, Jos. xiv. 17, 2 Sam. iii. 11, Jer. xxi. 1, Eze. xxxvii. 13.

Now and then the order of the words is different, the object being put immediately after the Inf., and the nominative of the subject coming next (as a supplement) e. g. Is. xx. 1 , in in when

 Is. ₹. 24, xxix. 23, Ps. lvi. 1.

Sect. 134.

## USE OF THE PARTICIPLE.

1. The only existing form of the Participle is used to express all the tenses, as מֵ dying (Zech. xi. 9); he who has died, dead (very frequently so); he who is to
 Is. v. 5); though it most frequently has the signitication of the Present. The passive Participles, therefore, stand also for the Latin Participle in -ndus, e. g. נוֹרָ metuendus, terrible, Ps. lxxvi. 8; מְהִּל laudandus, worthy to be praised, Ps. xviii. 4.
2. The Participle, standing in place of the finite verb as predicate of the sentence, denotes-


 Gen. xxxii. 12,
 in negative sentences, to $\mathfrak{i n}$ ' e. g.

Hence, b) the Future (conceived of as present, comp. § 126, 4). Is. v. 5, I will tell you what I do, for what I will do. Gen. xix. 13 ; xli. 25.

Also, c) the Past, especially when it stands connected with the statement of other past con-
 came; vs. 17 . Gen. xlii. 35 ; Ex. ii. 6 ; Judges xiii. 9 ; 1 Sam. xrii. 23 ; 1 Ki. i. 5,22 . But it is also used with reference to past time, and even for the perfect Preterite, without any such connexion; e. g. Deut. iv. 3, yֵיניכֶם הָרֹא your eyes which have seen. $\dagger$
 ploughing, Gen. xv. 17; Judges i. 7; xvi. 21.

Rem. 1. In all the three cases alluded to abore, $a, b, c$, , הִנֵה is employed before the Participle for awakening special attention; c. g. (a) For the Present, הָ behold! thou (art) with child,

[^130]Gen. xvi. 11 ; xxvii. 42 ; Ex. xxxiv. 11. (b) For the Future, Gen. vi. 17; Is. iii. 1; vii. 14 ; xvii. 1. (c) For the Past, Gen. xxxvii. 7; xli. 17.
2. By a change of construction, the Participle is often immediately followed by a finite verb; the pronouns that, who, etc. (ְֵֻׂ) implied in the Participle, must then be mentally supplied before the verb. So Part. and Pret. in Is. xiv. 17, that made ( destroyed (הָר) the cities thereof. Also Part. and Fiut. (Present', so that the second clause begins with ! or without it, c. g. Is. v. 8, , וּ who to those who comneet house with house, and (who) join field to field; rs. 11, 23; xxxi. 1; 1 Sam. ii. 8; Prov. xix. 26; also with Vav conversive, e. g. Gen. xxvii. 33, אַּ ָּיָּ xxxv. 3; l's. xviii. 33. (Compare the strictly analogous deviation from the Infinitive-construction, § 182, Rem. 2.)

Sect. 135.

## CONSTRUCTION OF THE PARTICIPLE.

When Participles are followed by the olject of the action which they express they are construcd in two ways; 1) as verbal-adjectives having the same grovernment as the verbs to which they belong; c. g. 1 Sam. xviii. 29, 7 ,

 garments; 2) as nouns followed by a genitive ( $\S 112,2)$; e. g. (ien. xxii. 12, Nי, אֵלהּם one that fears (a fearer of) God; Ps. lxxxiv. 5, inmates of thy house;



This latter construction with the genitive is properly confined to active verls ( $\$ 138$ ). The Participle of the verb sia to enter in, is also construed thus, as this verb is followed by the accusative (comp. ingredi portam); c. g. Gen. xxiii. 10, there are also examples of the Participle, regarded as a noun, being followed by a genitive in cases



2. The difference explained in No. 1, hollds also in regard to the sufijues. After the first method, we have עe we who made me, after the second my muker.

Sectr. 136.

## EXPRESSION OF THE OPTATIVE.

We have already seen ( $\$ 127,3, b$ ) that the Future, especially as cohortative with the ending $ה-\frac{a}{\tau}$ and with the particle $\mathfrak{N}$, is employed to express the Optative. Here must be added two other forms of circumlocution by which it is expressed, viz.-

1. By questions expressive of desire, c. g. 2 Sum. xv. 4, שִ, who will

 In the pluase proper force of the verb (to yive) is often cxcluded, and nothing more is expressed than would that! (utinam!) God grant! It is followed,


 (1) that they hued this heart! Job xxiii. 3.
2. By the particles $\mathbf{a}$ si, $O$ si! th $O$ si! especially by the latter, Ps. cxxxix. 19. The particle is fullowed by the Fut., Gen. xvii. 18, by the Part., P's. Ixxxi. 14, seldom by the Imp., Gen. xxiii. 13. When it is followed by the Pret., the desire expressed has reference to past time; as Num. xx. 3, לָ would we had died!

## Sect. 137.

## persons of the verb.

1. In the use of the persons of the verb there is sometimes a neglect in respect to the distinctions of gender: especially are the masculine forms (as being the most readily occurring) employed with reference to objects which are feminine; e. g.
 lvii. 8 ; Jocl ii. 22 ; Am. iv. 1; Cant. ii. 7. (Compare the analogous use of the pronoun, § 121, Rem. 1.)
2. The third person (most commonly in the masc.) is very often employed
 him) he was in trouble; it and it ane became warm. It is also employed
 Jer. x. 7.

The Arabie and Ethiopic commonly employ here the masc. and the Syriac the fem. form.
3. The indeterminate third person (where the Germans use man, the French on, and we they, one,) is expressed, a) by the 3rd pers. singular, c. g. Nop they (prop. he) called Gen. xi. 9 ; xvi. 14; 1 Sam. xix. 22; xxiv. 11; b) by the 3rd


no one go thither; so in the common phrase


Rem. 1. In the first case (letter a), the force of (impersonal, as we use one, men, they) is implied: the full construction occurs in one instance, 1 Sam. ix. 9, לת formerly they said thus in Israel. Sometimes another construction is emplored, viz., the repetition of the verb in the form of the Participle as a nominative; e. g. Is. xvi. 10 , shall not tread, for they shatl not tread = there shall be no treadiny; xxviii. 4; Jer. ix. 23; Fze. xxxiii. 4. The last not unfrequent in Arabic.
2. When the pronoun is to be expressed with emphasis, it is written separately before the corre-
 exxxix. 2; also after the verbal form, Judges xv. 12, and this occurs in the later writers without

3. In the poets and prophets, especially, there is often, in the same construction, a sudden transition from one person to another. Is. i. 29, , ashumed of the groves in which ye delight, where both the third and second persons are employed with reference to the same subject. Isa. 1xi. 7; Deut. xxxii. 15, 17; Mic. ii. 3.-In Jub xiii. 28, the thircl person is probably employed $\delta \epsilon \epsilon \pi \tau \kappa \bar{\omega}$ s for the first, compare also vi. 21 (according to the reading ib).

## Sect. 138.

## VERBS WI'H THE ACCUSATIVE.

All transitive verbs govern in general the accusative (§ 118). On this rule we remark-

1. There are many verbs which are construed both without an object (absolutely), and with one (in this latter case the verb in German and English often takes the prefix be) ; e. g. הָּ $\mathbf{N}_{\substack{5}}$ to go forth, and also like egredi in the form egredi urbem (Gen. xliv. 4).

Here notice further :
Rem. 1. Several verbs of this kind take after them their own substantive, i. e. one from the same root and with a corresponding signification, as like ßoudevér 及ovás II. x. 1.17; most frequently as a specification, or as a limitation of the general idea of the rerb (as also in Greck); e. g. Gen. xxvii. 34, , and bitter cry; vs. 33 ; 2 Kings xiii. 14; Zech. i. 14; 1 Chr. xxix. 9. Comp. vorciv viovoranip cte.
2. Verbs which signify to flow, to stream, take in the poets an accusative of that which is repre-
 water. Jocl iv. 18, the hills flow milk. So h!̣ to run, to flow, Jer. ix. 17. and

[^131]

3. It is also to be regarded as a mere poctic usage, when verbs which signify to do, to spectk, to ery, and the like, take an accusative of the instrument or member with which the act is performed. This is best illustrated by the example himṣ hip pisp to cry a loud roice (comp. Rem. 1), for to cry with a loud roice, lizc. xi. 13; to speak a lying tongue (Ps. cix. 2), hence, Ps. iii. 5, אוֹרֶ with my (whole) roicc I cry: : l's. xvii. 10, with the lips, xii. 3 ; to lubour with the hand, Prov. x. 4 ; to help with the right hand,
 cases the accusativas instrumenti is employed. In the same cases $\nexists i n s t r u m e n t i$ is also used, e. g. to praise with the month, Ps.lxxxix. 2; cix. 30; to supplicute with the mouth, Job xix. 16. But
 and Schäfer ad Eurip. Orest. 1427, 1477, Bernhardy Synt. Gr. Sprach. S. 110); and that the acensative is actually dependent on the verb, in these cases, is clear from a comparison with those given under Rems. 1 and 2. In like manner, $\dagger$ in German, the instrument is sometimes construed as the object of the verb, as in the following examples, which are strictly analogous to those given above: Schlittschuthe laufen; eine herrliche Stimme singen; eine tüchtige Klinge schlagen [so in English, to ring the bell, to sound the timbrel, etc.].
2. Many verbs govern the accusative in consequence of a peculiar turn given to their signification, when the corresponding verbs in Greek, Latin, and German are construed with other cases; c. g. צָּ acquaint one) ; ? causam alicujus agere (prop. to defend him before the judge);䍖 to bring good nexs to one, to cheer him; 岛 to commit adultery with one (prop. to embrace one adulterously) ; דָּרָ to become surety for one (to bail him).

Rem. 1. In the same manner are construcd even the passive and reflexive conjugations Niph., Hoph., Hithpa., the rerb sometimes assuming under these forms a signification which requires the accusative, as
 Gen. xxxvii. 18 ;
2. In very common forms of expression the accusative after such verbs may be omitted without injury to the sense (an elliptical expression), as Meve to stretch forth, sc. Trָ the hand, Ps. xviii. 17.
3. Whole classes of verbs which govern the accusative are, a) those which


[^132] flocks, Ps. lxv. 14; cix. 29; civ. 2; b) those which signify julness or ueut, as 心. N

 land was filled with them Ex. i. 7; אוּלִ? the fifty righteous will want fire, i. e. perkaps there will be luckimg fire of the difty Gen. xviii. 28; (ukhy) should I lose you both together Cenn. xxvii. 45 ; c) most verbs of cluelling, e. g. . Is. xxxiii. 16; Gen. iv. 20), but also amony a people, with any one (P's. v. 5; cxx. 5) ; d) those which express going or coming to a place (petere locum); hence Niヨ, with the accus. to befall one. With this is connected the accus. loci, §118, 1.

Sect. 139.

## VERbS with two accusatives.

Two accusatives are governed by-

1. The cansative conjugations (Piël and IFiphil) of all verbs which in Kal govern one accusative; e. g. מִלּאחתיו רוּחַ דָבְבָּה I have filled him with the spirit of uisdom,

 lless one with Deut. xv. 14, חִּ to cause one to luck something Ps. viii. G.
2. A numerous class of verbs which have even in hal a doubly-causative signification; such e. g. as, to cover or clothe one with anything (I's. v. 18; 1\%ze. xiii. 10; hence also to sow, to plant Is. v. 2; xvii. 10; xxx. 23; Julges ix. 4.) ; to anoint P's. xlv. 8) ; to fill, to bestox, to deprive (Eze. viii. 17; Gen. xxvii. 37 ; 1'r. xxii. 23); to do one a favour or an injury (1 Sam. xxiv. 18); to make one somethin! (Gen. xvii. 5) ; e. g. (und make it al holy anointing oil* Ex. xex. 25.

In such combinations as the one last mentioned, we often adopt another construction, viz, and make of it a holy anointing oil, i. e. we treat the first noun as an accusative of material, 1 Kings xviii. 32, , the stones an altar, prop. Guilt the stones into an altar; Lev. xxiv. 5. More notable examples of this construction are those in which the material is placed last, as

[^133] Ex. xxy. 39; xxxvi. 14.

There is another use of two accusatives after the same active verb, viz., when the second serves to limit the first, by expressing more definitely the object of the action. This nearly resembles the

 to smite him deal, Gen. xxxvii. 21 ; and in the same manner with Gen. iii. 15.

Sect. 140.

## VERBS WITH PREPOSITIONS.

The Hebrew language has no verbs compounded with prepositions. Those modifications of the verbal idea, which other languages indicate by composition with prepositions, are expressed in the Hebrew either, a) by appropriate verbal
 or, b) by prepositions written after the verb [as in English], e. g. Nרָ to call, with

 follow.

It is the task of the Lexicon to show the use of the several prepositions with each particular verb. The subject of whole classes of words construed with this or that particle will be best referred to $\S 154,3$, which treats of the construction and use of the prepositions. [See on the subject of this scetion, Nordheimer's Ifeb. Grammar, § 1037.]

Sect. 141.

## CONSTRUCTIO PRAEGNANS.

The so-called constructio procgnans occurs in Hebrew particularly when a verb, in itself not a verb of motion, is connected with a particle which implies motion; so that, for the completion and correctness of the sense, another verb of motion is to be mentally supplied, so that the principal verb properly obtains the accessory idea of motion through the particle; e. g. .


 prisoners he did not release (and let go) to their homes; Ps. lxxxix. 40; Gen. xlii. 28 ; Is. xli. 1.

Sect. 142.

## CONSTRUCTION OF TWO VERBS TO EAPRESS ONE IDEA.

When one verb serves to complete the meaning of another, the second (according to the sense, the principal verb) is construed as follows, viz.

1. It stands in the Inf., both alsol. ( $\$ 131,1$ ) and (more commonly) constr., after the other verb, e. g. Deut. ii. 25,31, תू $I$ bernin to yive; Gen. xaxvii. 5,








 the latter signifying to know [how] to do), to learn (7טְ) , to permit.* It is to be remarked, however, that in poetry the $?$ is often omitted where it is used in prose, as ${ }_{\text {Has }}$ to be melling, with the ?, Ex. x. 27 , with the mere Iuf. Job xxxix. 9 ; Isal. xxx. 9 ; xlii. $21 . \dagger$
2. It has, like the first, the form of the finite verb: they are then construed-
a) With ! before the second verb, which then agrees with the first in tense, gender, and number, both making up but one idea, as in Nos. 1 and 2. (Comp. our expression, he was pleased and went, for he was pliased to !fo.) - Julges xix. 6,
 he returned (repeated) and digged, for he digged aydin; xx.xii. 7; 2 Kings i. 11, 1.3; Gen. xxv. 1, he added and took a rife, for he took again a wife.-Esth. viii. fi,
 witness?-Cant. ii. 3; Eccles. iv. 1, 7.

The construction can also begin with the Fiut, and proceed in the Pret. with ? (necording to § 126, 6), as in Listher viii. 6; Dent. xxxi. 12, that they may lcurn (Fut.) and fcar (1'ret.). for to fear, Hos. ii. 11 ; Dan. ix. 25. And on the contrary, it may begin in the Pret ant proced in the Fut. with !, Job xxiii. 3.

[^134]b) 'Aovidét $\omega$; , i. e. without the ! aul, both verls being of the same tense, gender, and mumber (as under letter a), but with a closer comexion of the second with


 the'y could not touch; Job xix. 3; Hos. v. 10.

This construction is more poetical than that under letter a. Comp. e. g. Fop with ! following in Gen. xxv. 1; xxxriii. 5 ; but without ! in Hos. i. 6 ; Is. lii. 1 ; thougl it occurs also in common prose, as in Neh. iii. 20 ; Deut. i. 5 ; Jos. iii. 16 ; 1 Chron. xiii. 2.
c) Likewise a$\sigma v \delta \delta e ́ t \omega s$, but with the second verb in a close subordinate connexion in the Fiuture, depending on the conjunction that implied. Job xxxii. 22, siל


 to make great.

In Arabic and Syriac, this construction is very common;* in Hebrew rare; but it was necessarily used in those cases where the second verb was to be distinguished from the first in person or

 shall smite him, and I shall drive him out.

All three constructions (letters $a, b, c$ ) and also another akin to that under letter $c$, are found alike in some verbs in Syriac. He could go, may, for example, be expressed by potuit et ivit (letter a), potuit ivit (letter b), potuit et iret (not in Hebrew), potuit iret (letter c). See Agrell. Suppl. Synt. Syr., p. 33.
 shalt cease as a destroyer, i. e. to be a destroyer $=$ to destroy $\ddagger \ddagger 1$ Sam. xvi. 16.

In the same manner is construed also the verbal aljective, 1 Sam. iii. 2, his eyes ת הֵogan (to grow) dim. Of this construction is Gen. ix. 20, and husbandman.

Rem. 1. In very many of the above examples, the first verb only serves, in effect, to qualify in some manner the second, and hence we translate it by an adverb, as already shown above. Comp.


- The Arabian says rolebat dilaceraret for he would rend; and so the Syrian, $\operatorname{Lax}_{\mathrm{i}}^{x} \operatorname{lin}_{3}^{0}$ colebat tolleret (Lunke xviii. 13), he urould lift up, but oftener with the conjunction that, $\}^{2} \mathcal{L}^{2}$ ? he uroulld come. The Latin also may omit the conjunction in this case; Quid vis faciam? Ter. Volo hoc oratori contingat, Cic. Brut. 84. So in (ierman [and in English] Ich wollte, es wërre; Ich dachte, es ginge [I would it were, I thought it went.]
$\dagger$ For
$\ddagger$ 'This construction is also common in Syriac (see Hofimann's Gram. Syr., p. 343, b), where it is by no means to he taken (as is done hy J. D. Michaëlis) for a Graceism.
stood aroumd and bowed, for boued around; 2 Kings ii. 10, hiwit הְ thou hast made hard in asling, i. c. hast made a hard demand (comp. 1ix. xiii. 15). The verb which qualifies the other may also
 und be satisfied (with the sight), and lxri. 11, that ye may suck and be sutisficel by that act); xxvi. 11. Jer. iv. 5, when means, call ye (and that) with full coice $=$ call aloud.

2. Of another construction are those verbs which take after them (in place of an accusative) a sentence or clause depending on $\mathfrak{T}$ or or that ( $\$ 155,1$ ); such, c. g., as to see (Gen. i. 4, 10), 10 know (Gen. xxii. 12), to beliere, to remember, to forget, to say, to think, to huppen. On the omission of the conjunction before such clauses, sce § $105,4, c$.

## Sect. 143.

## CONSTRUCTION OF PASSIVE VIERBS.

1. When a causative conjugation (Piel, Hipluil) has two accusatives (§ 189), its passive retains only one of them (the second, more remote oligeet), takiug the other as a nominative, or including it in itself. Ps. lxax. 11, , צִּ
 clothed with garments (prop. made to put on garment.); Lx. גxr. 40, הֶּרֶ which was shown thee (prop. which thou wast made to see).

Several striking phenomena in the construction of the passive are rearlily explainet, if we regard it as an impersonal active (dicitur $=$ one says, thry say), just as, on the contrary, the impersonal active often supplies the place of the passive (see $\S 137$ Note). We may thus explain those cases, in which-
 and they made knoun to Rebecca the uords of hesun; is. 18 , , bore) to Enoch, Irad; xxi. 5,

 to Pharaoh. Lev. xvi. 27; Jos. vii. 15.
b) It does not agree (as often happens) in gender and number with the noum, even when preceded by it (comp. § 1-17), because the nom is, in this case, regarled not as the subject but as the object of the verb passive. Is. xxi. 2 , ${ }^{\text {, }}$, risionem diram munciurunt mihe the nown in the
 Gen. xxxv. 26 ; Hos. x. 6.*
2. The efficient cause, after a passive verb, most frequently takes ${ }^{4}$, and is
 xiv. 19, Prov. xiv. 20. More rare, but equally certain, is the same hee of $\mathfrak{i}$ (prop. from, by which origin, source, in general, is often demeted), I's, xxwrii. 2.:
 Sometimes this relation is expressed without a preposition with aceusut. instrumenti

[^135] comp. Ps. xvii. 13.
liem. Many neuter verbs are sometimes used as passive, in consequence of a peculiar application

 of, Deut. xiv. 22.

# CHAPTER IV. <br> CONNEXION OF THE SUBJECT Witil tie predicate. 

Sect. 144.

## MANNER OF EXPRESSING THE COPULA.

The union of the substantive or pronoun, which forms the sulject of the sentence, with another substantive or adjective as its predicate, is most commonly expressed by simply writing them together without any copula. 1 Kings xriii. 21.

 also he (is) uise!-In this construction, a personal pronoun of the third person, which refers to the predicate, frequently serves to make prominent the union of the subject and predicate (see § 121, 2).

Less frequently the copula is expressed by the substantive verb
 rs. 20. Also by and $\mathfrak{H} \times$ (which include the idea of the substantive rerb) when the subject is a pronoun and the predicate is a participle (see $\S 134,2, a$ ).

On the gender and number of the copula, see § 147.
Rem. Instead of the adjective, the Hebrew often employs the abstract substantive as a predicate ( $\$ 106,1$, Rem. 2); especially when there is no adjective of the signification required
 if the substantive, which stands as subject of the sentence, were repeated, in the constr. st., before
 strength the strength of stones? Similar examples are, Cant. i. 15. . .
 (is) a throne of God $=$ solium divinum;* second member (with the full construction)

[^136]a righteous sceptre is the sceptre of thy dominion. So also especially with of com-

 as those of a hero.

## Sect. 145.

## ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS IN A SENTEACE; CASE ABSOLUTE.

1. The most natural arrangement of words in the simple sentence, in calnu discourse, is properly this, viz., sulject, copula, predicate; or, when the predicate consists of the verb with its object, sulject, verb, alject. Adverbial designations (for example, of time or place) may stand either before or after the verl); a nergtive always immediately before it.*

But the Hebrew can, at pleasure, render either of these members prominent by giving it the first place in the sentence; thus-
a) The verb: Prov. xxviii. 1, they flee, when there is no pursuer, the wicked; Gen. xlii. 30. This is its common position when there is implied in it an indeterminate subject (the impersonal construction, § 134,3 ), as Gen. i. 14. .
 des hommes) ; and also wherever the sentence or clause is comnected with a preceding one by ? (of course wherever the Future with ! is employel), or ' $\mathfrak{a}$; as Gen. iii. 1, all beasts ״ ״, הִמְטִּר for Jehorah had not caused it to rain.
b) The adjective; and this, when it is the predicate, is more commonly placed before than after the subject, as the most important member of the sentence.

c) The object of the rerb, which is then immediately followed by the verb, as Prov. xiii. 5, lying specech hates the righteous man; 1s. xviii. .5, a ripenin! !prape becomes the llossom; viii. 18; Gen. xlvii. 21. Very rare is the arr:angement as in 2 Kings v. 13; some great thing had the prophet commanded thee. Ex. xviii. 23.
d) The adverbial expression, which is then immediately followed by the vert. Gen. i. 1 ; Jos. x. 12, , یָּ : Judges v. 22.

[^137]Another urrangement, vi\%, sulject, oljeet, verb, which is common in Aramaan (I)an. ii. 6, 7, 8,
 xi. 5 ; 1s. xiii. 18; xlix. 6. See Gesenins's Commont. on Is. xlii. 24.

On the absence of inflexion in the predicate when put first, see § 1147 .
2. But the greatest prominence is given to any substantive in the sentence (whether it is the genitive, or aceusative of the object, or employed by way of ynalification of any kind) by permitting it to stand, absolutely, at the beginning of the sentence, and then representing it, in its proper place, by a pronoun (com-
 Goul-perfect is his way, for God's way is perfect; xi. 4, civ. 17 ;-the accusative, Ps. lxxiv. 17, winter and summer-thou hast made them, for thou hast made winter
 xxi. 13 , comp. Jer. vi. 19.* The suffix may also be omitted, Ps. ix. 7, and the commexion indicated by ? (as sign of the apodosis). Ps. xviii. 41 (comp. 2 Sam.
 there is no searehing (to them). Gen. iii. 5; Job iv. 6, xxiii. 12, xxr. 5; 1 Sam. ※xv. $27 ; 2$ Sam. xv. 34.

The use of the participle in this manner is peculiar, and resembles the Latin ablatice absolute, Prov. xxiii. 24, חִָּ Me he who begets a wise son (i. e. when one begets, etc.), then he may
 the priest's servant; ix. 11 ; Gen. iv. 15.

Sect. 146.

## RELATION OF THE SUBJECT AND PREDICATE IN RESPECT TO GENDER AND NUMBER.

The predicate (rerb, adjective, substantive with copula) conforms, regularly, to the subject in gender and number. From this rule, common to all languages, there are many deviations, partly occasioned by regard to the sense rather than the grammatical form of words (constructio ad sensum), partly by the position of the predicate before the other members of the sentence.

In respect to the first cause, we remark-

1. Collective nouns, e. g. בָּ ,
 ix. 55, 7 , in̛ou and they slew every one his man; Prov. xi. 26. So when the collective

[^138] is itself fem. but represents individuals which are of the mase. gender; e. g. 2 Sam. xv. 23, ם.
 the cattle (cows) were ploughing. For examples of the predicate with the singular form in such cases, see Gen. xxxv. 11 ; Is. ii. 4 (comp. Micah iv. 3).

Often the construction begins with the singular (especially when the verl) is placed first, $\S 147, a)$, and then, when the collective is introduced, proceeds with
 and mourned; i. 20.
2. On the other hand plural nouns with a singular signification ( $\S 108,2$ ) are construed with the singular, especially the pluralis excellentier. Gen. i. 1, B. $\dagger$ Ex. xxi. 29, בְּעָלָי lis ouner shall be put to death. So femmine forms with a masculine signification are construed with the masculine, as in Eccles. xii. 9, the preacher unas wise.
3. Plurals which designate beasts or things (but not persons), whether they are masc. or fem. readily take the construction with the fem. sing. $\ddagger$ (comp. the feminine form with collective meaning, in § $107,3, d$ ). Joel i. 20 , בּ

 The same principle applies to pronouns in comexion with their antecedents, Job xxxix. 15 ; Is. xxxv. 7; 2 Kings iii. 3.
4. Moreover, those plurals also which designate persons are construed with the singular, when, instead of the whole sum of individuals spoken of, the attention is directed to each one of them (comp. hor ommes and omnis). Num. xxis. 9, (blessed (be every one of) those who liess thee and curson (each of) those who curse thee; Prov. iii. 18,

5. Dual substantives have their predicates in the plumal, since verts, adjectives,


[^139]eyes of Leah were tender ; 1's. xviii. 28; Is. xxx. 20; 2 Sam. xxiv. 3; 1 Sam. i. 13,
 Micah vii. 10, צֵּ my myes shall see. Jer. xive 6; Is. i. 15 ; Job x. 8 ; xx. 10; xxvii. 4; P's. xxxviii. 11. Rarely the principle stated in No. 3 of this section is extended also to the dual; e. g. Mic. iv. 11.

## Sectr. 147.

SUBJECT AND IREDICATE, IN RESPEC' TO GENDER AND NUMBER.
The other cause of deviation from the general rule, is the position of the predicate at the beginning of the sentence. The sulject, to which it would regularly conform, not being yet expressed, it often takes its simplest and readiest form, viz., the masc. sing., even when the subject, which comes after, is feminine or pherel: the predicate in this case is not subject to inflexion; e. g.-
 תinh
 was the battle. 1 Sam. xxv. 27. Often the verb may here be regarded as impersonal, as in il vient des hommes, il a paru deux rolumes ( $\S 145,1, a)$. More seldom before the plur. fem. we find (at least) the masc. plur. Judges


 the inflexion of the adjective: gerecht (sind) deine Gerichte.)
 thy serrants. Also-
d) The copula, when it precedes the sulject.* Is. xriii. 5 , מִּ blossom becomes a ripening grape; Gen. xxvii. 39; xxxi. 8.
But if the construction is continued after the introduction of the subject, the
 , Men. i. 14; Num. ix. 6.

[^140]Rem. 1. In general, the language is at times sparing in the use especially of the feminine forms (comp. § 112, 1, Rem. 2), and when a feminine substantive has more than one predicate, contents itself with giving to the nearest one the appropriate feminine form. The following are instructive
 . . . . . Sheol beneath is mored . . . it stirecth up the shates to thee. Examples of the masc. form in remote predicates, Gen. xxxii. 9 ; xlix. 15 ; Lew. ii. 1 ; v. 1 ; x.. 6 ; in such as stand


On the same principle, pronouns which refer to plural nouns take the form of the singular when they stand remote from their antecedents; Job xxxviii. 32 ; Deut. xxi. 10.
2. The eases in which the predicate follores the subject, without conforming to it in gender and number, are mostly those in which a verb passive is to be regarded as impersonal and in construction with the accusative ( $\$ 143,1$, Rem.) ; or the predicate is a participle used as a subtantive ;

 and darkness, there became (with a special emphasis on the nom,- the verb standing imper-onally).

## Sect. 148.

## CONSTRUCTION OF COMPOUND SUBJECTS.

1. When the subject is composed of a nominative and genitive, the verb sometimes conforms in gender and munber to the genitive instead of the governing noun,-viz, when the word in the genitive expresses the principal idea; e.. g.

 battle-front against lim, i. e. the battle was turned against lim. Is. vi. 4; Jub xxxviii. 21.

With the sabstantive the the whole, and the numerals, this construction is almost universal; c.g.

2. When several subjects are comected by and, their common predicate misally

 and in the masc. even with subjects of different genders, as, Gen. xiii. 11, צירחה隹 Abraham and Sarah (were) old; Dent. xxviii. 32. When it precedes, it often conforms in gender and number to the first (as being the nearent) sulpect.
是 there spoke Mirium and Laron; Gen. xxxiii. 7; .liv. 14. Rarely the preference for the singular and also the mase. appears, when the predicate
 rejoice the heart. If the construction is contimed, it is ahways with the plural form, e. g. Gen. xxi. 32 ; xxiv. 61 ; xxxi. 14 ; xxxiii. 7.

## CHAPTER V.

## USE OF TIIE PARTICLES.

Sect. 149.
OF the particles, as connected with the system of forms and inflexions ( $\$ \$ 99-$ 105), we have already treated in their relation to the other parts of speech. We are now to consider the signification and use of these words, which are so necessary to the nice perception of the sense, and hold so important a place in the philosophical treatment of the language. We shall present, in a general view, their most important peculiarities, leaving the more complete representation, as well as the necessary proofs, to the Lexicon.

Sect. 150.

## THE ADVERBS.

The most important adverbs, classed according to their signification, are-

1. Adverbs of place: :



 wards,

'lo many of these adverbs $i$ is prefixed, or the accusative-ending $\Pi_{T}$ appended, indicating respectively the relations from and towards; e. g. הּ
 (not merely thither), ending ( $\$ 90,2$ ), and $i \mathfrak{p}$ properly denotes hanging off from an object, and hence being upon the side of it, like a dextra et sinistra, a latere, a tergo, and in French dessous, dessus, dedans, dehors.*
2. Adverbs of time; these are in part the same with those which have been mentioned as adverbs of place, and which, by an easy transition, are made to express relations of time; as $\boldsymbol{o}_{\underset{\sim}{*}}$ then, like


Exclusively such are ; עַהָה at the time, hence now, at this time, (also without the pure designation

[^141]







3. Adverbs for other modal illeas, as a) of quality; $\mathfrak{H}$ (see above) and i? so ;
 within a little $=$ wanting little) almost, NiES so, so then (Job ix. 21 ), hence often used intensively in
 just, as ự ựholly or just so lony, Job xxvii. 3.






The expression of asseveration may easily pass over into that of opposition (comp. verum, tero) and of limitation; and hence some of the above-mentioned affirmative particles are partly udversi-

 and Job. Restrictive also is (used before adjectives like Five merely, i. e. only.
 expressive of accession) \#ی adeo, yea more, even,-both which, however, often take the character of conjunctions.
4. Adverbs of negation: on these, sce § 152 .
5. Interroyative adverbs inclute all the former classes: thms, the question may relate to pluce,

 lony? 登, the same; to quality, as as how often? to cause, as and (\$ 99, 3) wherefore? - Hespecting the pure interrogatioc particles
 where (comp. Germ. wovon? whin!), but by usage becomes also a mere sign of interrogation before particles of place, time, ete.

In this manner, and by the application of the ending $-\cdots$ of the prep. $t=$ and of the relative令 uhence? ז whither, ם whe whe

 doubt, solicitude, and also lope.

Sectr. 151.

## CONSTRUCTION OF $A$ DVERBS.

1. Adverbs not only serve, in gencral, to qualify a clause or sentence by expressing circumstances of time, place, etc., but also to qualify single words, as



 without a cause xxiv. 28, where the adverb is treated substanticely, as in sponte sunt.

The adverbs also appear in the nature of the substantive, when, as in the later writers, they take

2. The repetition of an adverb sometimes denotes intensity, and sometimes continual accession; c. g. קְּ exceedingly Num. xiv. 7, also more and more
 (peu à peu) Ex. xxiii. 30.

On the use of verbs with the force of adverbs, see $\S 142$, Rem. 1 .

## Sect. 152.

## WORDS WHICH EXPRESS NEGATION.

 i's (the opposite of poctic are

We subjoin a more particular view of the use of these words:
$N$, like oủ, oik, is used principally for the oljective, unconditional negation, and hence it is commonly connected with the Preterite or Future (as Indicative), and with the F'uture also to express prohibition ( $(127,3, c$ ). In connexion with לs, when the latter is not followed by the article and thercfore means amy one, any thing, it expresses the Lat. mullus, none (comp. Fr. ne-personne).
 Pror. xii. 21 ; xxx. 30. (The negative is here closely connected with the verb, and there does not happen anything is = there happens nothing. So also ins with he; Eceles, i. 9, emoticis there is nothing nenc. But the case is different when is made definite, where it means all, the achole;
 use of $\leqslant$ in interrogative sentences, see $\S 153,1$.
On the position of sib in the clause, see $\S 14 \bar{j}, 1$, and Note.

לs, like $\mu \dot{\eta}$, Lat. ne, for the suljective and depenelent negation is connected with the future (as Jussire); hence the phrase siz; he ne veniat, may stand cither for lie shall not come, or for may he not come. See above, § $127,3, c$, and $\S 128,2$.
 so, i. c. let it not be; e. g. Ruth i. 13, תַּ not so, my dlumghers; Gen. xix. 18. On the interrogative use of it, see § 153, 1.
is (prop. const. st. of iN nothingness) is the negative of $\because . .$. (he, she, it) is, and includes the verb

 and negatively with i's, as Gen. xxxi. 29, יִ? לus it is in my power (prop. it is in the power of
 pronouns, when they are the subject of the sentence, are appended to $\mathfrak{r} s$ as sullixes; as $\because$
 universally takes the form of a participle, the verb of existence being implied in $\mathfrak{i s}$; Fx. w. 16.
 sometimes signifies to be present, to be near or "t hame, so "'s is used in the contrary sense, to be not present or at hund; ;ֵֶּ he was not present = was no more, Gen. v. 24.

From i.: is formed by abbreviation the negative syllable $\because \cdots$, employed in compounds as a
 negation, and is there used even as a prefix to the verbs. On the formation of the interrogative ※from is, see § 153, 1.


 that not, Jer. xxiii. 14.

证 (remoring, a clearing acuy) is the same as ne, that not, lest, especially aftur the mention of an action by which an apprehended evil is to be prevented or shumed (Gen. xi. -1, xix. 15); or after verbs signifying to feur, to bereare (like $\delta$ ciów $\mu \grave{y}$, vereor ue) xxxi. 21, 31 ;-also at the beginning of the sentence, especially in the expression of apprehension or fear, as Gcn. iii. 22, in, חove ne? and now, lest he streteh forth his hand.
2. Two negatives in the same sentence, instead of destroying each other", as in Latin [and English], make the negation stronger, like oủk oúdeis, oün oúdapês.
 (in the parallel passage, 2 Chron. ix. 20, siל is omitted). Ex. xic. 11.—\%uh. ii. 2,


3. When one negative sentence follows amother, especially in the propic paral lelism, the negation is often expressed only in the lirst, while its influence extends also to the second. 1 Sam. ii. 3, multiply not worle of pride,--let (not) that which is arrogant come forth from your mouth. Ps. ix. 19; Job iii. 10; Niviii. 17 ; xxx. 20. (Compare the same usage in respect to prepositions, $51.51,4$. )

## Sect. $15 \%$.

## INTERROGATIVE WORDS AND SENTENCES.

1. Interrogative sentences are sometimes, though rarely, distinguished as such merely by the tome of voice in which they are uttered; e. g. 2 Sam. xviii. 29,
 my son lisau? 1 Ki. i. 24 . This is somewhat more frequent when the sentence
 not spere? Job ii. 10 ; x. 8, 9,13 ; Judges xi. 23 ; xiv. 16 ; and also after the particles (Zach. viii. 6) and (Job xiv. 3). But negative sentences still more readily take, in utterance, the interrogative character; e. g. with sit, when
 thone not wateh for my sin? Jon. iv. 11; Lam. iii. 36, 38; with לא in expectation
 excursion in these days? *

Esen the few interrogative particles originally expressed either affirmation or negation, and only acquired by degrees their interrogative power. $\dagger$

Kespecting $\quad \underset{\square}{\text { a }}$ and its original demonstrative signification (being related to the article), see § $100,4$.

Probably "Nhere? sprung from a negation;-full form i.W (hence whence?), prop. not there, is not there,-uttered interrogatively, is not there? = where is? Wis hot there? for where is he? Job xiv. 10 man dies ? and where is he? = ? become an interrogative pronoun $=\stackrel{?}{ }$ who? (comp. the Germ. wo (where), and Eng. who); but this is not its original use. On the abbreviation of ins into ' $\because$, see $\S 152,1$.
2. Most commonly the simple question begins with He interrogative ne num, 一 the disjunctive question with utrum followed in the second clause by an an
 go . . . . or shall we forbear? The indirect form of inquiry differs only in having $\mathbf{~ E N o r e}$ frequently in the simple question. and in the first member of the di.jumetive question.

More particularly-
The is strictly a sign of the simple and pure question, when the inquirer is uncertain what answer may or should be given. Job ii. 3, hast thou considered (7ִ? ?

[^142]Often the inquirer expects a negative answer (num?), which may be expressed in the tone itself;
 he live aguin? Such a question may have precisely the force of a negative assertion; 2 Sam. vii. $\bar{y}$, תhath thou build a house for me? (in the parallel passage, 1 Chron. xuii. 4, ' לג לֵּ thou slealt not build a house for me:) and, vice versấ, the negative form of the ques-
 xx. 20, comp. 2 Chron. xxvii. 7; xxxii. 32\% On the other hand, the question may be so uttered as to show that the speaker expects affirmation and assent, when it corresponds, in effect, with the negative form of the question in English; compare the use of $\dot{\eta} \gamma \dot{u} p$ and $\dot{\eta} \gamma \dot{\gamma}$ ip ou for is not?
 question is tery seldom introduced by ax, and then always in connexion with something already implied which gives a disjunctive sense, like our or perhaps (German oller efica), Lat. an, as in Is. xxix. $16 ; 1$ Kings i. 27 ; Job vi. 12.

The disjunctive question (utrum-an?) is usually expressed under the form Ex, -T, also 2 , ? Job xxi. 4, with emphasis on the first question Cאִ? German [and English], with $\mathbb{N}$ or before the second clause, Job xri. 3, Eecles. ii. 19. The use of this combination $\mathbb{Q}$ - ? does not, however, always require opposition between the clauses, but often stands in poetic parallelisms and in other passages (Gen. xxxvii. 8; Hab. iii. 8), where the same question is merely repeated in different words in the second clause, as in Job iv. 1\%, is mun just rather than God; and (ロヘ̣) is a men pure rather than his Maker? vi. 5, 6; siii. 3; x. 4, 5 ; xi. 2, 7; xxii. 23; hence ! also stands before the second clause in such cases, Job x. 3; xiii. 7; xv. 7, 8, or there is no particle at all to connect the clauses, as in Job xxii. 4.

The form of the indirect question is, in general, the same. After verbs of inquiring, doubtin:examining, the simple question takes (whether), Gen. viii. 8 ; Ex. xri. 1, and Ex. Cant. vii. 13; 2 Kings i. 2; the disjunctive question (whether-or) ax̣-n, Gen. xxwii 21, and also 7-7,
 the Latin nescio an, Esther iv. 14.

For interrogative adverbs of place, time, etc., see $\S 150,5$.
The words $\mathbb{\pi}$ ( $\$ 122,2$ ) and sims quite, then, serve to give animation or intensity to a question (like $\pi$ or'́, tanulem, Eng. then, now); as אims Is. xxii. 1 ; Nís where now? Job xvii. 15.
3. The affirmative answer is given, as in Latin, by repeating the predicate of the interrogative sentence; Gen. xxvii. 24; xxix. 6; Judges aiii. 11; the negative answer is sib no, Gen. xix. 2.

[^143]
## Sect. 154.

## THE PREPOSITIONS.

1. The simple* prepositions, like the adverls, originally denote for the most, part physical relations, viz. those of space, and are then used tropically of intellectual relations, as those of time, cause, etc. The prepositions of place originally denote cither rest in a place, or motion from or to a place; but in each class there are some (several in the first, few in the second) which take also the signification of the other.
a) The most important prepositions of place are:

 about ( $\dot{\mu} \mu \phi$ ), behind, $\mathfrak{i}$ בִּ between,
 class) $\exists$ ? to (usque ad ), לעַ upon, torrarls.
b) Very many of the abore-mentioned prepositions express also relations of time, as $\overline{3} \mathrm{~m}$, within, $\mathfrak{i p}$, צֶ, , עַ.
c) Of those which denote other relations we may mention, with, with, for, because.
2. The Hebrew language developes a great degree of dexterity and accuracy of discrimination in the composition of prepositions. Thus, those of motion are set before others denoting rest, so as to express not only a change of relation, but also the local one which was existing previously to the change. or which follows as the result of it, as in French de chez, d'auprès. $\dagger$ So-
 or abore, מֵּעִם de chez quelqu'un, מֵּת away from under.
 the outside of, ? ? forth without, Num. v. 3.
Thus also compound prepositions, which have adopted an adverbial signification, take after them ? (more seldom $\mathfrak{p}$ ), and again become prepositions; c. g. מעַּל

[^144]


 3. We now present a few prepositions,-such as occur most frequently and have the greatest varicty of meaning,-with their principal significations, in order to explain their construction with verbs ( $\$ 140$ ), and the most important idioms connected with them. $\dagger$
a) $\underset{3}{ }$, which, of all the prepositions, has the greatest variety of significations, denotes, 1) prop. rest in a place ( $(\dot{\epsilon} \nu)$, hence in with reference to time, and to state or condition, as ם, with reference to a company, or number of individuals, among, e. g. D. Dity, with reference to bounds or limits, within, as arem with the gates, - of high objects, upon, as apon horses, Is. lxvi. 20 ; but it has rarely all these significations after verbs of motion=eis (like ponere in loco). The Hebrew says, a) to drink in a cup (for, to drink what is in it), Gen. xliv. 5 (so in
 bibere in Florus, French boire dans une tasse) ; $\beta$ ) in the manner, in the model or rule, for afler


 cation in Gen. xxi. 12, in Isaac ( tion is due to the passages, where we have, $\gamma$ ) the essentice or pleonasticum of the grammarians, which everywhere means, as, tanquam (Fr. en). Ex. vi. 3, I appeared to Abraham, cte., as God Almighty. Is. wl. 10, the Lord will come Piñ as a strong one. The most striking use of it is before the predicate-adjective after the verb to be ( $=$ conduct or behave as). E.celes, vii. 14, in
 are evil; Job xxiii. 13, בוּא בְאֶָ he is one [without a rival]. (In Arabic this idiom is frequent: see Thes. Ling. Hel. p. 174.)

 indicates motion (Lat. aul), to, unto: it differs, however, both from he, to tourards, and tẻ unto, usque ad, since it denotes that the object towards which the motion tends is actually arrived at (which is not determined by the use of hs), and yet does not fix attention specially uron this
 it expresses the relation of verbs of motion (and others analogous to them) to their oligects; e. g.
 upon, בְ בְׁp to heurken to. Verbs having the signification of the last two, often include the idea of the pleasure or pain with which one sees or hears anything. Gen. xxi. 16, I could not vitness the death of the chillt! Hence, in a tropical sense, in respect to, on account of, as $\%$ rome rejoice on account of, i. c. to have joy in something.

 usque a, usque ex, comp. also inde.
$\dagger$ For fuller information, Gesenius's Lexicon must be consulted.-Ta.

With the itleal of vicinity, nearness, that of arcompaniment, and of help, instrumentality (with) readily connects itself. (ien. xxxii. 11, with my stuff (?? lyy there (כְּ) hure 1 rushed upon troops. Verlss of cominy and going, with (to come, or go, with) express the idea of bringing; e. g. Judges xv. 1, Sumson visitchl his wife with a kill, brought her a kid. Deut. xxiii. 5.
b) by $^{2}$ signifies upon ( $\epsilon \pi i$ ) and over ( $i \pi \epsilon \mathrm{e} p$ ); very frequently of motion (down) upon or over-(up) upon or wer a thing. In the sense of (resting) upon, (coming) upon, it is used after verbs signifying to be heary, i. c. burdensome, affietive (prop. to lie hearily upou), Is. i. 14; Job vii. 20,-to set or appoint orer (commission), as עַ the primary idea is connected that of accession (conceived as a laying upon) and of conformity, ufter, according to (with reference to the rule or pattern, upon which a thing is laid to be measured or modelled), and of cause (ob quam), on account of [prop. upon something as ground or motive], althongh. In the signification over, it is often used with verbs of corering, protecting לֵַּ בָּ (prop. to place a covering, a shield, over); and so also with those of kindred meaning, as wַ contend for one (prop. in order to protect him), Judges ix. 17. It is used for at, by, chiefly in cases where there is an actual elevation of one of the related objects above the other, coneeived as an impending over ; e. g. הַיָ by the sea [or, as we may literally render it, on the sen]; but also where this is not the ease, as $7 \underline{M}$, like our on the side. Hence, it expresses the relation of motion to the object at which it terminates,-to, towarels, so that in the later Hebrew style and in poetry it is often used for $ל$ §ֶ and ל; e. g. Job vi. 27 ; xix. 5 ; xxii. 2 ; xxxiii. 23.
c) (§ 102) indicates motion, remoral, away from anything. Its fundamental signification is separation from a whole, derivation, descent. As constr. st. of the noun part, it properly means part of, hence off, from, used at first with reference to the part which is taken from the whole, as to give, to take part of $=$ from. This fundamental signification appears plainest, when it expresses
 sang). It has the same signification when (apparently pleonastic) it is connected with the worls one, none, in the so often misapprehended idiom of the Hebrew and Arabic non ab uno, i. e. not any one, not the least, prop. not even a part, a piece, the least portion, of one. Lev. iv. 2; Deut. xv. 7; Eze. xviii. 10.

In its most ordinary use, with reference to motion away from, it forms the opposite of $\boldsymbol{\text { Nus }}$, and is employed not merely after verbs which express actual motion, as to depart (from), to flee (from), but also those of kindred signification, as to be afraid, to hide, to becare: comp. in Gr. and Lat. кадúnтш únò, custodire $a b$. In its tropical use with reference to time, it may mean either from (a time) on, in which case the reckoning is to be made from the beginning, not from the end of the
 from the beginning of thy days onward; or it may mean next from, i. e. immediutely after (' $\epsilon \xi$ ápiogov,
 after three months. Hos. vi. 2.

For the use of it to denote rest on the side of an object, where the idea is that of near distance, of being just off from (the prope abesse ab, pendere ex aliqua re), see $\S 150,1$. For its use in the expression of comparison, see $\S 119,1$.
d) (prop. reyions, directions, hence towards), denotes motion, and also merely direction torards (with reference both to material objects and the operations of the mind), whether one reaches the place towards which the motion is directed or not. In the former case it is equivalent to ַㅡ, e. g. 2 , eren unto his month, Job xl. 23 ; sometimes it means even penetration into a


It is certainly an unfrequent and improper use of this particle (though sustained by unquestionable examples) when it is employed to denote rest in a place at which one has arrived. Jer. xli. 12, they found him

 MIause, zu Leipziy, is quite analogous.
e) $\}$ (an abbreviation of hss, but more commonly used in the tropical significations), to, towards, denoting motion or merely direction, either of physical objects or of the mind : hence, employed as a sign of the dative, and also of the genitive of possession ( $\$ 115,2$ ), and then with the signification with respect to, on wccount of, in behalf of. Such a dutirus commonli is used pleonastically (eapecially: in the language of common intercourse and in the later style) after verbs of motion, as to go, 10 fiee.
 other verbs, as שְדִִּה-לְ be thou like, Cant. ii. 17. It is a solecism of the later shle common in Syriac) when active rerbs are construed with ? instead of the accuative, as ? ? Lam. iv. 5. [Compare Ex. xxvii. 3, Num. xxxii. 15.]

Very often also, especially in poetry, it denotes rest in a place, -hence at, or in, with reference to place and time; as other verbs to denote the efficient cause or author, see § 143, 2.
f) (as an adverb, about, nearly), as a prep. as, like to; for denoting similarity it is doubled $=$ ? us-so, and also so-as in Gen. xliv. 18, in later authors ? conformity to a model or rule; as a designation of time, about (circa). A pleonastic \% or Kaph teritatis, as the grammarians called it, is nowhere found with certainty. In all cases the comparative
 as a true man must be.
4. In the poetic parallelism, a preposition which stands in the first member may (like the negatives, $\S 152,3$ ) be omitted in the corresponding place in the second

 Job xxxiv. 10, Is. xxviii. 6; 论, Is. xxx. 1: Gen. xlix. 25; nnen, Is. 1xi. 7.

Sbet. 155.

## THE CONJUNCTlONS.

1. The Hebrew language, considered with reference to the mumber of its comjunctions, frequently consisting of several words combined, and its ahility to form still others from most of the prepositions by the addition of exhibits no small degrece of cultivation and copionsuese, compared with its namal simplicity. But writers often meglect the means which it fumisho fin :acemately expressing the relations of sentences and members of asentence, contenting themselves with less perfect modes of comexion:* hence the varions significations

[^145] have, or at least whereby they must be expressed when tramslated into our Western languages, where we are not permitted (see No. 3) to retain the loose and indefinite comexions sometimes made by these particles.

Of the most extensive application is ?, ( $\left(\begin{array}{l}101,2): * * * *)\end{array}\right.$
a) Properly and usually copulative (und), connecting single words as well as whole sentences. When three or more words stand in connexion, it is used either before every one after the first (2 Kings xxiii. 5), or before the last only (Gen. xiii. 2); rarely after the first only (Ps. xlv. 9). In certain phrases it is commonly omitted, as yesterday (and) the day before =heretofore, Ex. v. 8. The tone of animated description or narration may also occasion the omission of it (eonstructio asyndeta); as Julges v. 27, at her feet he bowed, he fell, he lay. Job xx. 19; Cant. ii. 11, v. 6 ; Is. xuri. 17.

As connceting words, it is often explicative (like isque, et quidem). 1 Sam. xxviii. 3 , בְּרָמה וּבְעִירֹר in liamah and (=even) in his oun city, 2 Sam. xiii. 20, Amos iii. 11, iv. 10 ; even when the second idea is subordinate to the first, and would properly be expressed as the genitive after it (the êv dià Svoiv of the grammarians), as Gen. iii. 16, I will multiply i. c. the pains of thy pregnaney.

As connecting elauses or sentences, it denotes either continuation (for then), hence before the apodosis (like German so in $d a-s o$ ) and after absolute designations of time-(sec Gen. iii. 5; Ex. xri. 6; Prov. xxir. 27, הַ afterwards, then build thy house); or enhancement, as in Job v. 19, in six troubles he will deliver thee, yeu, in seven no eril shall befall thee); or comparison, as in Job v. 7, man is born to trouble, and so the sons of lightning fly on high, for just as these (birds of prey) fly high: xii. 11; xxxiv. 3; Prov. xi. 16; xvii. 3; xxv. 3, 25. But the Vav is also-
 and (yet) thy heart is not with me (i. e. while yet)? Gen. xv. 2; xviii. 13 ; Ps. xxviii. 3.
c) Causal (for, because); Ps. v. 12, let them ever shout for joy, because (when, since) thou dost defend them. Is. xliii. 12, ye are my witnesses hsser
d) Inforential, (then, so then, therefore); Eze. xviii. 32, I delight not in the death of him that
 when it implies an inference of some kind from circumstances already mentioned; 2 Kings ir. 41,

e) Final (in orller that, so that); in this sense chiefly with the cohortative or jussive (§ 128).

Of scarcely less extensive application are the two relative conjunctions (prop. relative pronouns)解 significations, except that occurs as a conjunction far more frequently and in a great varicty of senses, while
lioth are prefixed, like quorl, to a whole clause, standing in place of an accusative, and governed by the preceding active verb as its object. ©ֵּ is even preceded by the accusative particle Josh. ii. 10, , we have heard (id quod exsiconvit) that Jehorah hath dried
 following uses of $\mathfrak{3}$ : a) it is employed before words directly quoted, like the Gr. ö̃ (rery seldom

[^146] passing over to the conditional power of an［Eng．when＝if，diflering only in the form of repre－ sentation］，Job xxxviii．5，comp．vs． 4 and 18 （seldom ©ֶ，Lev．iv．2．；Deut．xi．6，－but often with an accurate discrimination between the two，well illustrated in Ex．xxi．；c）cousal，eo yume， because，fully because－and because，Job xxxviii．20），when more than one canse for the same thing is awsigned； d）adversative（in which sense＇ 3 only is used）either，a）after a necrative，but，－prolp．but it is becuuse， e．g．thou shalt not take a wife for my son from the daughters of the C＇maanites－but a Hebrewess， $=$ for thou shalt take a Hebrewess，the former being prohibited because the latter is to be done； or，$\beta$ ）where negation is only implied，e．g．after a question which involves denial（\＄ $153,1,9$ ）． when it may be rendered no，but，－but no，－for surely（üd丸̀̀ $\gamma \grave{a} p$ ）．Mie．vi． 3 ，what（imjury）have 1 done to thee？．．for surely I brought thee up，etc．Job xxxi．18．See on $2 \mathbb{C} \%$ beluw，in No．2，i．

2．We now arrange the remaining conjunctions according to their significations， and in the case of those（very many in number）that have a variety of senses， exhibit together the different uses of each as it first occurs．We must，howerer， confine ourselves here to a brief general notice，leaving the more complete view， with the references and proofs，to the Lexicon．＊
a）Copulative：besides ！，${ }^{7}$ ，the properly adverbial forms $\mathbf{I}$ also，and $5 \mathbb{S}$ intensive，there is added， wholly，even，once combined forms emphatically，to include all，e．g．Deme bid both the teo，he ail foypther．It also merely
 Rachel）more than Leah； 1 Sam．xxiv． 12 ． according to the connexion，much more，much less．
b）Disjunctive：is or（etym．free will，choice，hence prop．vel，but also aut cxclusive， 2 Kings ii．16）．Sometimes it stands elliptically for＇3（be it）that，or（it must be that，when it may be rendered unless that，e．g．Is．xxvii．5；－hene the transition to the conditional sense，if．Lut if， Ex．xxi． 36 （the LXX．$\neq \dot{e} v$ ס́́，Vulg． $\sin$ autem），if haply， 1 Sam．xx．10，which has been contested without reason（comp．on יא゙，$\S 150,3$ ，Note）．Repeated，iא－iא，sive－sire，it is the same as RM－




d）Causal：（besides $\mathfrak{9}$ and
 and the circumstances that $=$ for this cause that，and cmphatically nimis－bデ
 עיקֶב（prop．as a reverall that），that．
 （see above），perhaps ？， 1 Kings vi．19．With a negative force： ：is that not，lest｜§ 152.

[^147]f) Comditional: principally and (for which rarely bes), if. The first (which is also a particle of interrogation, $\$ 153,2$ ) is purely conditional, leaving it uncertain whether what is expressel by the werb is actually so, is actually done, or not (rather the former), -as, if I dohave tone-shall do: on the contrary, $\mathrm{h}^{*}$ expressly implies that it is not so, is not done (if I should do-had done, at least that it is very uncertain and even improbable. Hence Es may properly stand where th wonld express the thought more accurately (1's. 1. 12; exxxix. 8; Hos. ix. 12); but thanot be used for © ESplecially in solemn asseveration, expressed under the
 this-then let the enemy persecute me, etc.; Ps. xliv. 21; lxxiii. 15; cxxxvii. 5.

What has been said of and tholds good, also, when they are connected with the negative,
 הוּר as Jehoreh liecs, has the force of a negative (hence sis is affirmative), 2 Sam. xi. 11;
 ם so may God do to me and more also, if-. Hence generally after verbs of swearing and adjuring, $\mathbf{\square}$ stands for not, Cant. ii. 7, iii. 5, also elsewhere in poetry, as Judges r. 8, Is. xxii. 14. On is, , כִּ, and No. 1, e.
g) Concessive: ©N, with the Prel., even if ( $=$ though) I am, Job ix. 15, with the Futt. (though

h) Comparative; lii. 14, 15.Obad. 15. Exact conformity is expressed by
 neverthcless, and the difficult combination $\mathbf{D}$, $\mathfrak{W}$, prop. that if, for if, most frequently but if, in the sense of explained under letter $d$, but united with DS to form a connexion with the verb. l's. i. 1, happy the man who walks not (if he walks not) in the counsel of the ungotly ..... vs. 2, but if ( when, Gen. xxxii. 27, and merely but=except (after a negative), xxxix. 9 ; xxviii. 17.
k) On the interrogative particles, see § 153 , and-
$l$ ) The optative particles above, under letter $f$.
3. A certain brevity and incompleteness $\dagger$ of expression (see No. 1) appears, among other things, in this, that instead of the compound conjunction, by which the relation is fully expressed, may be used one or the other of those composing it. Thus, instead of the full form
 xiv. 13; 1 Kings viii. 24.

* לh, in full $\mathfrak{k}$, is radically not different irum $\mathfrak{k i}$, not, hence it becomes, when uttered interrogatively, first an optative particle ( $\S 136,2$ ), as לְ nonne vivat \& for would that he were alive, then a conditional particle, if he were alive (which is, however, not the case).
 Germ. weim thass (prop. if it is that) and o.d Eng. "if so be that." On the contrary, a degrec of pleonasm in the
 Pבְל-דנָּ cren because, Lev. xxsi. 43. Like the German sintemal und all dieweit.

4. This brevity of expression is sometimes carried so far, that the conjunction, which is required to show the relation of one sentence or part of a sentence to another, is omitted altogether. This occurs-
a) In conditional clauses: Gen. xxxiii. 13, drive they them hard, then they will die, -for, if they drive them hard they will die. Job vii. 20, (if) I have simed, what do I unto thee? Gen. xlii. 38.
 people (as) they would eat bread, prop. (as) those tho cat loread. Job xxis. 19, drought and heat bear off the snow-water, שָּ (so) Sheol (those who) sin. Jer. xvii. 11.
c) In members which are usually dependent on the relative conjunctions. Gen.
 that they may learn, they are men. Is. xlviii. S, for I knenr, thou art utterly faithless. Ps. xvii. 3, I have purposed, my mouth shall not sin. In all these cases, the second member stands properly in the accusative ; comp. § 142, 4, Rem. 2.

Sect. 156.
THE INTERJECTIONS.
The interjections which correspond to our ah! oh! wlus! woe! expressing de-
 of the threatening or lamentation cither by the prepositions hy, hs, h, or without
 יTֵּ alas, my brother! 1 Kings xiii. 30.

On the construction of הִ with the suffixes, see $\S 100,5$.

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# HEBREW READING BOOK: 

PREPARED WITH REFERENCE TO THE TRANSLATION

OP

RÖDIGER'S EDITION OF GESENIUS'S GRAMMAR.
$B Y$
BENJAMIN DAVIES, Pir. D., D.D.

# HEBREW READING BOOK. 

PREFACE.

Tiris Reading Book is designed as an introduction to the translation of Hebrew, and based upon special and constant references to the forms and rules of Gesenius's Grammar. It is well known that by such a plan the difficulty of learning the inflexions and constructions of a language may be effectually lessened. This advantage is here intended to be secured to the Hebrew beginner.

In selecting and arranging the portions for translation, great pains have been taken to make them progressive (from short and easy to more difficult), and also as diversified as the limited space would allow,-so covering nearly the whole ground of the Grammar with the references.

In the Notes, the main object has been to furnish the learner with those references to the Grammar, by which he will be able to understand the forms and the constructions, and so to make himself master of its principal contents. Other help is given where needful, especially in the first exercises; but care has been taken to leave suitable scope for the skill and research of the student, lest he should become too dependent on such assistance. The experienced teacher, also, will find suflicient scope for his vird race instruction, while conducting the student through the portions.

In order to awoid a mechanical committing to memory, the teacher should go over each new Paradigm with the scholar, and orally explain the deviations from the Regular Verb, and the normal
forms indicated by the asterisk. In this way the memory will be greatly assisted by a pereeption of the analogy and structure of the language. Thus, for example, if the scholar perecives in l'arad. G. how the 3rd pers. Pret. 2 on, is a model for the 3rd Pret. plur. the remaining forms of the first and second person, he then has in reality but three new forms to learn for the whole Preterite. If he further perecives how all these verbs fundamentally follow the same analogy, he is less deterred by the multiplicity of the Paradigms, which he ean thus reduce, in eftect. to but one, greatly to the assistance of the memory and the facility of finding out doubtful forms.

In connexion, however, with the foregoing lessons, and during the first weeks of instruction, something should be read and translated (such as the Scripture l'hrases in this leading Book), to afford the teacher the opportunity to explain the Article and Particles, the construct state, ete., of Nouns, and to exercise the student in the inflexion of Verbs. The teacher should take care that in these exercises the pupil reads with fiucncy, without stumbling and stammering. For this end, it is best to read choud and repeatedly what one already understands. Besides the readiness in reading, there ought to be expertness in writing the characters, so that they nay be distinctly legible to others.

As a further exercise in the Irregular Verbs, it is especially recommended to write out the inflexions
of a few others, after the motel of the laradigms, and then to do the same wholly from recollection. Then the student may begin to inflect in writing such verbs as partly follow more than one Paradigm, e.g. Nib, nhy, ete. In doing this, it will be found necessary to enter more fully on the study of those sections of the Grammar which impart the requisite information, and oven to notice the execptions in the Remarks.

With the Paradigms of Nouns, the same course may be followed; but it is necessary, moreover, that the learner should be accustomed to trace back the noun to the stem-word or root. Indeenl, these two points affecting the noun, viz., its derication and its declension, must be constantly attended to in acquiring the language.

As soon as a good knowledge of grammatical forms is gained, there must be a systematic effort to acquire the no less important knowledge of words. The memory must, of course, be tasked for this purpose, just as in learning any other language. It is an injurious plan to require of the pupil but seldom or never the effort of committing to memory. Tantum scimus, quantum memoria tenemus.

The perusal of the Syntax may sometimes be left to the student without oral instruction; and so also
may the complete mastering of the whole Grammar. But this leads us to another point, vi\%, the inexpediency of using skeleton grammars, which give but a rough sketch of the forms and structure of the language. A full Grammar should be used at once, in which the more important parts, usually printed in larger type, should be learned first, leaving the rest in smaller type for after study.

As appropriate Exercises in Hebrew composition, the student may be required to re-translute from memory what he has just translated from the Hebrew; to read and point some unpointed text; and also to write out Hebrew translations to be examined by the teacher, with reference to the inflexion and pointing of the words, and also to their syntactical construction.

To the above suggestions by Gesenius, it may be well to add, that the blackboard may often be used with advantage by a teacher who meets a class in a lecture-room. It was so employed by the great Hebraist himself, in lecturing to his large classes of students.

No pains have been spared to ensure perfect accuracy in this production, as well as in the Grammar. It is confidently hoped, therefore, that there will be no room to complain of typographical or other errors.

## READING LESSONS.

1. SCRIPTURE PHRASES AND SENTENCES.

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## II．EXTRACTS IN PROSE．

1．＇Tife Priests＇Benediction． Num．vi．22－26． 22
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## 2．Jotham＇s Parable．

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\text { Judges ix. } 6-15 .
$$

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3．Elijaif＇s Ascension．
2 Kings ii．1－12．
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## III．EXTRACTS IN poETRY．

## CHARACTERISTICS OF HEBREW POETRY．

Before the student begins to translate the follow－ ing Extracts，it is proper in a few brief statements to call his attention to the subject of Hebrew Poetry． Those who may desire fuller instruction are referred to Louth＇s Lectures on Hebrew Poetry，especially Lecture xix．；Herder＇s Geist der Nebr．Possie；De Wetter＇s Einleitung in die Psalmen；Ewald＇s Poo－ tische Butcher，I．；and Nordhemer＇s Hebrew Gram－ mar，§§ 1120－1130．

The greater part of the Old Testament is poetical in its composition，though only the l＇salms，Job，and Proverbs（technically called Tors，from the first letter in the Hebrew name of each）are generally termed poetical books．The style of these writings is，however，very unlike what is called poetry in most other languages．It does not consist in metre， like the versification of the Greeks，the Romans，and nearly all other nations；and much less does it ex－ hibit rhyme（sec below），like most of the poetry of modern Europe and Asia．In its form or structure， the poetry of the ancient Hebrews was distinguished from prose，chiefly if not solely，by brevity of express－ sion，and by impressing the sentiments in the way of repetition，comparison，or contrast．Hence，it
has some characteristics of language，viz．，the use of peculiar words，forms of words，etc．，as explained in the Grammar，§ 2，4．But the grand characteristic， which in fact constitutes its rhythm，is a proportion or correspondence in thought and expression＊be－ tween the clauses of a sentence，which accordingly． in its simplest form，consists of only two members （ $\delta i=\tau \tau \chi{ }^{\circ}$ ）．

Hence the poetry or rhythm of the Hebrews is generally termed parallelism，$\dagger$ as consisting in a mutual correspondence between the members of a period．And the different modes of exhibiting this

[^149]parallelism mainly constitute the varicties of the poetic style, of which these are the principal:-1. Lyric Poctry, consisting chiefly of such compositions as the P'salms, distinguished by the effusion of pious sentiments. 2. Epic Poetry, as in Job-at least the style of this book resembles the epic more than any other production of the classic muse. 3. Didactic l'octry, as in the l'roverbs. 4. Pastoral l'octry or ldyls, such as the Cauticles. 5. Prophetic Poctry, which is best exemplified in the earlier prophetic books (Joel, Isaiah, Mabakkuk, ete.), for in the later (e. g. Jzekiel, Haggai, Zechariah), it scarcely difters from prose.

Parallelism is generally distinguished into three sorts, according to the relation in sense between the corresponding members, which relation may be synomymons, antithetic, or synthetic.

1. Synonymous Parallelism.-In this the second member is more or less a repetition of the first. These examples may serve to illustrate the cor-respondence:-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Prov. vi. } 2 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thou art snared in the words of thy mouth; Thou art taken in the words of thy mouth.

Job v. 6.

##  

For affliction comes not forth from the dust; And trouble springs not forth from the ground.
Sometimes each member of the parallelism consists of two parts, so that we have four clauses, as in

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Gen. iv. 23.* }
\end{aligned}
$$

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Adah and Zillah, hear my voice,
lie wives of Lamech, hearken to my speech; For I have slain a man to my wounding,

And a youth to my hurt.
As another instructive example of this parallelism with four clauses, we may adduce 1's. xix. 8.




'The law of Jehovah is perfect, leviving the spirit;
The testimony of Jehovah is sure, Making wise the simple.
It may be remarked in general, that under this synomymous parallelism, which is the most frequent form of the Hebrew rhythm, we find an exceedingly great variety of constructions.
2. Antithetic Parallelism.-In this the idea of the second member stands in opposition or contrast to
29. But there is no satisfactory proof that in these or other cases the rhyme was (as De Wette, etc., suppose) designed by the poet. On the contrary, it is almost certain that the poet had no such design. For, if he had, he might with perfect ease have given in Job vi. ten more rhymes, e. g. in vs. 8 there might be as good a rhyme as we find in vs. 9 , by a very simple change in the arrangement of the words; thus, instcad of the present order-
he might, without affecting the sense, have written-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ? וְהֵּ }
\end{aligned}
$$

As another proof that rhymes in Hebrew Poetry are undesigned, we may point out the fact, that they consist in the recurrence of like suffixes or terminations in the inflexions of nouns and verbs, so that they actually often appear also in the plainest prose, e. g. Josh. xxiii. 11 -


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that of the first．This construction is specially fre－ quent in the book of Proverbs，where very many of the sentiments are thus illustrated or impressed by antithesis ；c．g．Prov．x． 1 ：

A wise son maketh a glad father ；
But a foolish son is the heaviness of his mother．
For other examples，see Ps．i．6；cii．27， 28 ； cxlvii． 6 ；Is．i． 3.

3．Synthetic Parallelism．－In this the idea of the first member is enforced not so much by repetition or antithesis in what follows，as by expansion and modification ；e．g．Ps．xxvii．4：






One thing I ask from Jehovah， It will I seek after，－
My dwelling in the house of Jchovah all the days of my life，
To behold the beauty of Jehovah，
And to inquire in his temple．
＊：＊In most editions of the Hebrew Bible，the poetry is not given（as in the above examples）in lines according to the parallelism，but appears in the same form as the prose（except in Ex．Xw． Deut．xxxii．，Judges $\%$ ，and 2 Sam．xxii）．The acernts，however，serve to indicate the divisions or lines．Thus，a simple parallelism is divided into two members by Athmach（－）or Merka with Mahpakh（，$\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{-}$ ）；and in a compound one the sub－ divisions of the members are ustually made by Za－ qeph－qaton（ $\stackrel{\bullet}{-}$ ）and Rebhia（ $-\dot{-}$ ）．

1．Part of the Song of Moses．
Deut．xxxii．1－4．



2．Parable of tife negenerate Vineyard．
Isaiah v. 1-7.

1

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v. 5. הכ" ברגיש
葠捲促 ：一莈

3．Pratef of a goon Wife． Prow，xxxi．10－31．
10路

 ： 15 16
亿多 － 21 ：


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佥 בַּעִָּ




## NOTES.

## I. SCRIPTURE PHRASES AND SENTEACES.


#### Abstract

N. B. For the derivation of Nouns, the Lexicon must be consulted; but this necessity can oceasion no difficulty, even to the beginner, now that he can have Gesenius's, with the words in alphabetical order.


1. Perī ghō-dhěl lē-bhā̉bh.* Fruit-of great-ness-of heart, i. c., boasting. Peri' is a noun masc. sing. in the constr. state (see §89), and belongs to Class or Parad. VI. i. (§ 92): the has Daghesh lene (sec $\S 6,3, \S 13,1, \S 21,1$ ). Ghớdhêl noun masc. sing. constr. st., Parad. VI. c: the $\perp$ without Dagesh lene ( $(6,3)$ because preceded by a word ending with a vowel and closely connected (see § 21, 1, at the end). Liebhǜbh, noun mase. sing. absol. st. (see $§ 89,1$, at the close), Parad. IV. a. This example shows, a) that the relation of the genitive case, or what is called the constr. state in Hebrew, is indicated essentially by mere eloseness of connexion between words as uttered, for there is no change whatever in the form of pri and ghodhel though each is in constr. state (sec § 89, 1, and Note $\dagger$ ); $b$ ) that there may be several successive nouns in the constr. state depending on each other (see § 114, 1): sec also below, in No. 3.

[^152]-The sign (:) at the end is Süph-pūsüq, which is always preceded by the accent Silluq (§ 15).
2. D'bhă'r hăm-mä'-lěkh hăg-gī-dhōl. Hord-of the great king. D'bha'r, noun masc. sing. constr. st. of nexion in utterance, or the constr. state, occasions a change of the rowels (see $\S 89,1$ ). Mǎmmáthh/ noun mase. sing. absol. st.. Parad. V1. a; with the article (Nㅡ) prefixed (see § 3i5). Hisjā̄dhöl. adj. mase. sing. with article; on : with Dagh. forte, see § 13,3 . Observe how the adj. stands after the noun, and agrees with it in gender and number (see § 112,1 ), and in taking the article (see § 111, 2).
3. I'mé sh'né chany-yé "bhō-thai'i. The days-nf the years-uf the life-of my fathers. I'mé, noun mase. plural, constr. state; the sing. ©i., irregularly inflected (§96). Shrue, noun fem. pl. constr. state: sing. היָּ (§ 9j, Parad. B. a) but here with masc.
 st.; sing. 'IT. P'arad. V'lll.-the plural form used with sing. sense (see § 108, 2, a). 'hizs noun m. pl. (but with feminine form, §87, 4), with suff. 1 pers. sing. ( - for $\fallingdotseq$ because of pause, Silluq. $§ 29$.
4. a): sing. בیָ, irreg. inflexion (§ 96).-Observe here the succession of three nouns in constr. st. (§ 114,1 ), and the effect of the close connexion in utterance not only changing the vowels (as in No. 2), but also cliding or slurring over the consonamt - (יְ for Observe also the absence of the art. before the nouns, owing to their being in the constr. st., and as such not needing the art. (see § 110,2 ); comp. our expression Gold's world for the worl of Gorl (sce Note ${ }^{*}, \mathrm{p} .185$ ).
4. Zê'-khěr tsăd-dī́q lĭbh-rā-khā'. The memoryof a righteous (man) for a blessing, i. e., is blessed. Z c khǐr, Parad. VI. b; article omitted (§ 110, 2); constr. state without any change (see abore, No. 1).
 which is understood. Ľbhräkhä', noun fem. sing. absol. state, Parad. B. c; with prep. ? to prefixed ( $\$ 102,2$ ), here with short Chireq (?) according to $\S 28,1$. -Observe the cllipsis of the copula (i. e., the verb to be), according to § 144 .
j. Ǎt-tā' Ychō-vā tōbh recăll-lāch. Thou, Jehorah (art) goorl and forgiving. Ättü', pronoun personal or separate, 2 pers. sing. masc. (see § 32). Y\%oun', pr. name: for the signification and the pronunciation of this word, see Lexicon. Töbh, adj.
 masc. sing., with conj. ! and prefixed (§ 104, 2).Obs. ellipsis of copula (art) according to § 144.
6. 'Iưq-tō'l 'lō'ah rā-shā'. Thoou wilt slay, O God, the wicked. T'qqtòl, verb 2 pers. sing. masc. fut.
 Parad. I.; the ה- with Mappiq (§ 14) and Pathach furtive (sce § 8, 2). Rāsháa (on omission of $\Psi$, see p. 16) adj. masc. sing., agrecing with stood; art. omitted in poetic style (see p. 184). Observe the arrangement of the words $(\S 145,1)$.
7. Mí yïsh-kö́n behà'r qơdh-shē-khā. Who shall duell in the mountain-of thy holiness? i. e., in thy holy mount. Mi, pron. interrog. (§ 37 ) used of persons. Yüshiớn, r. izự, Parad. B. Behür, noun masc. sing. constr. st., Parad. Vlil. a; pl. הָּ הָ הַּ
 suff. 2 pers. sing. masc. ( $\$ 91,1$ ), joined by means of $(\bar{\vartheta})$ because of the pause, Silluq (§ 29, 4, b).Obs. subst. used to express adj. (sce $\S 106,1$ ); and for the position of the suff. 7-, see § 121,6 .
 famine in the lund. pret. Kial (see Parad. B.), agrecing in gend., numb., and pers. with its nominative ( $\$ 146$ at begrinning).
 M곡ํㅜ, noun (Parad. V1. a) with prep. prefixed with Qamets because it displaces the art. and talkes its pointing ( $\underset{T}{7}$ for $\underset{T}{ }$, see $\S 102,2, b$, and $\S 23$, $5)$; see also $\S 29,4, a, \S 93$, Rem. 1 , for the $(-)$ instead of $(\bar{\nabla})$ under $\stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{ }$. The arrangement is the same as in No. 6.
9. Ăy-yē' sō-phēr čth-lı̆ăm-mı̆gh-dā-lím. Where (is one) counting the towers? Söphēr, act. part. masc. sing. Kial; r. סָּ, Paradigm B. -Nֶ, sign of the definite accusative (see § 117, 2, and Note *), here followed by Maqqeph ( $\S 16,1$ ) and hence with ( $(\overline{)}$ ) shortened to $(\bar{\vartheta})$, see $\S 2 \overline{7}, 1$. הַקְ, masc. pl. absol. st., Parad. II., with art. prefixed (§ 35); in accus. case, governed by söphèr (see § 135 and § 138).
10. Tsĕ'-dhĕq mish-shā-mă'-yı̆m nĭsh-qā’ph. Righteousness from hearen looked doun. ©u: noun masc. plur. but seemingly clual (sce § 88,1 , Rem. 2), with . prep. i? prefixed (§ 102, 1); on plur. form in this noun, see $\S 108,2$. , , verb 3
 with ( $(\square)$ for ( $(-)$, because of the Silluq (§ 29, 4). -Observe, the proper sense of this verb in Niph. is reflexive, riz., to bend one's sclf forwarll (see § 51,

11. The iniquity of his fathers shall be remembercel. masc. fut. of Niphal, which has here a passive force (sce § $51,2, d$ ), Paradigm B. ive ( ${ }^{a}$ oón, not $a^{\circ} \mu$, because the cholem requires a consonant before it, which must be the 1 , and not the $y$ which has the Chateph-Pathach, sce $\S 26,1)$ noun in constr. state (Paradigm III.), governing the rerb in gend.,
numb．，and pers．（see § 146）．© see $\S 8,5$ ）compare on No． 3 ；there scriptio plena， here scriptio defeetiva（§ 8，4）．－The arrangement is according to § 145 ， 1 ，a．

12．Who hath tried the spivit of Jehorah？（see § 37，1）．תִּכּו（thyk－kénn，ก without Daghesh lone， because the preceding word ends with a vowel and is in close connexion，§ 21，1）verb（r．（כָּT）in Piël， which has here intensive force（ $(52,2, a$ ），Parad． B．－תֶ sign of accusative here before a noun made definite by the constr．state（see on No．9）．तוּ （rü $\tilde{u}^{a} c h$ ，with Pathach fiutive，§ 22，2，b），noun in constr．st．（Parad．I．）．

13．Honour thy futher and thy mother．7⿹ַּ （r．כָּבּ，see on No．8） 2 pers．sing．masc．imper．of Piël（here causatice of Kal，§52，2，b），agreeing with $\begin{gathered}\text { NTM } \\ \text { SThon（see No．5）understood；Parad } 13 .\end{gathered}$ －ת゙ֶ（twice）before a noun made definite by the
 gular（בベ，§ 96,2 ）with suffix 2 pers．sing．masc． （§ 91，1，liem．1）．！copulative conj．prefixed with Sh ča（§ 104，2）．． fem．with suffix，here appended by Seghol instead of Slieca，on account of the pause accent Silluq（ $\mathrm{sec} §$ $29,4, b$ ）．

14．IHis bluod from thy hand will I require．צָּיְדָ （mŭy－yū－dheckhä＇，second syllable with Metheyh（§ 16， 2），to show that the vowel－sign $\bar{\tau}$ stands for $\bar{a}$ not $\delta$ ，sce § 9,12 ，Rem．1，a）noun fem．singular（7） Parad．11．），with prep．prefixed（§ 102，1）and sufix appended．录，Parad．B．On the arrange－ ment，sce § $145,1, c$ ．

15．I was stolen from the land of the Hebrents．號 verb（r．Parad．B．） 1 pers．sing．com．， pret．of Pual（the passive of Piël，§ 52，2）．מֵ， prep．（唯）prefixed according to § 102,1 ．ic art． （sce No．8）．

16．He has made heary my chain．הִבְּנִּיר， 3 pers． sing．masc．，pret．of Hiphil（cansative of Kal，§ $53,2)$ ；r． D．b）．

17．Upon Jehovah I was cast from the womb．佼（hơsh－lükhthetī） 1 pers．sing．com．，pret．of

Hophal（passive of Hiphil，§ 53，2）；r． Parad．B．© account of the pause accent，$\S 29,4, a$ ，and $\S 27$ ． liem．2，c）．

18．I will keop myself from my iniquity．7ane 1 pers．sing．c．fut．of Hithpuël（with reflexire force． and here with transposition of $\Omega$ ，see $\S 54,2 . a$ ， and 3）；r． No．15）．

19．And nove let your hands be strong（lit．shall be
 because a distinctive accent，$l^{\prime \prime s}$ siq（1），preceder． § 21，1）， 3 pers．pl．fem．fut．Kal，r．FiTh，l＇arad．I）． （or verb $P^{\prime} e$（iuttural）；- fut．used for imper．acconi－
 with suff． 2 pers．pl．mase．－（）n the use of a plur． verb with a duul noun，sce $\S 146,5$.

20．The yeneration of the upright shall be blessed．


 here with－because of Silluq），agrecing in gend， numb．，and pers．with the subject．

21．Beceuse thou hast forgotten the Gord of thy sal－
 2 pers．sing．fem．pret．Kial of $\Pi=\div \div$
 （the in loses both Mappiqg and Pathach furtive，hee－ cause it ceases to be final，§22，2，か：on the flural use of this word（phuralis excellentire）see §108，2．b． yi．．．，noun，l＇arad．VI．e，with suffix 2 pers，sims． fem．

22．A wise son will gladden his futhre．（）n prowi－ tion and agreement of adj．and subst．，see No． 2. 1

23．Jehntah will keep thee from all cril lit．alt af eril．）T： at end；§ 21,2, e） 3 pers．sing．mave．fut．Kal with suffix， 2 pers．sing．masc．，see l＇urned．（．．．and §̧ rio． כלֹ（here kibl，because fulluwed by Magqgh． which takes away the tone of the word and an makes a closed unaccented syllable，which camut have a long vowel，sce § 26，5），prop．a newn
（but commonly rendered as an arlj．）in constr．state， P＇arad．VIII．c．ער．with－for＝accorling to § 29， 4，u．

24．Culuse me to walk in thy truth and teach me．
 Hiphil，with suffix 1 pers．sing．com．，see Parad．C．
 sing．（Parad．1）．）with prep．？（here with $=$ accord－ ing to $\S 102,2, a)$ and with suffix， 2 pers．sing． masc．

25．When you hear（lit．according to your hearing） the roice of the trumpet． inf．Kal of（Parad．F．）with prep．כְּ（§ 102， 2）and suffix 2 pers．plur．mase．，sec $\S 61,1$ ，and $\S 65,2$ ．－On the use of $\underset{\sim}{3}$ before infinitive，see § $132,2$.

26．This（has been）thy way from thy youth，for thou hast not hearkened to my voice．ity，see § 34 ．

 Observe the effect of prep．$\underset{\sim}{3}$ on the sense of which here means to hearken $=$ obey，but without the（as in No．25）it means simply to hear $=$ per－ ceive sound．

27．They encompassed me like bees，they were ex－ tinguished like fire of thorns．See §67，Parad．H．； with suffix， 1 pers．sing．${ }^{1}$

28．The door will turn on its hinge，and a slug－ gard on his bed．בíg，̣， 3 pers．sing．fem．fut．Kal of


29．Then they began（lit．it was begun）to call on the name of Jehovah． pret．Hophal of ל ？with Daghesh lene，because of the distinctive accent（ $T$ iphcha - ）under the preceding word，see § 21,1 ．
 sing．com．fut．Kal of נָצָ（verb 泡，Parad．G．）．

31．Gen．xiv．21．识， 2 pers．sing．masc．imper． Kal of ๗igh，noun singular，but here with collective force， § 108,1 ．לק， 2 pers．sing．masc．imper．Kal of
（treated as a verb $i^{\prime}$ ，Parad．G．，and partly after Parad．F．；sce § 66，Rem．2）．Th for 7？on ac－ count of pause，§ 103，2，a．
 fut．Kal of עָּר（Parad．D．）with suffix， 1 pers．sing． com．（§60）．On the position of the negative，see § 145,1 ．לכコּ心， 1 pers．sing．com．fut．Kal of לָּ （verb バפ，Parad．I．，see §68，2）；here with＝ instead of - on account of the conjunctive accent， Munach $\left(\frac{-}{1}\right), \S 68,1$ ．Sce on No． 7.

33．Jer．xvii．14．הוֹשִׁיָּ，imper．Hiphil of
 Niphal of also § $29,4, b$ ．

34．Job xiv．1．7יל：，pass．part．sing．masc．Kal of $\underset{\substack{\text { י }}}{ }$ ，in constr．state，according to $\S 135,1$ ．On
 see §112，2．Conjunction ！prefixed with Shureq， before simple $\mathrm{Sh}^{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{va}$ ，according to $\S 104,2, b$ ．

35．Genesis xxviii．12．ביָּ，part．sing．masc．
 （verb 向，Parad．G．）． gogic or ancient casc－ending for the accusative，$\S 90$ ， 2：so also in last word． Hiphil of

36．Is．xxxvii．23．חֵּ חֲּקְ，Piël，Parad．E．On the next word the accent（ $\stackrel{-}{-}$ ）Zaqeph－qaton，§ 15. תָּוֹרִ，Hiphil of（verb עוּימ，Paradigm M．）．色， with Daghesh forte conjunctive，§ $20,2, a$ ．

37．Judges xiv．14．מֵהָּהֵל，part．sing．masc． Kal of
 K．and $O$ ．

38． 1 Sam．ii．27．הִנְגְלִלה infin．absol．Niphal of （verb ith，Parad．P．），with He interrogative pre－ fixed，according to § 100,4 （see its use in § 153,2 ）： this infin．stands before the finite verb to make it emphatic，according to $\S 131,3, a$ ．בּּ of $\boldsymbol{\pi}$（Parad．VI．h．）．
 digm H．，§ 66，Rem．2），with preposition ל pre－ fixed according to $\S 102,2, c$ ，and $\S 142,2$ ．iap
verb $\dot{\text { viy（Paradigm H．）inflected here as regular }}$ （after Paradigm B．，see $\S 67$ ，licm．10，also § 29， $4, b$ ）．
 holate，Parad．D．）with suffix．（Paract．K．） from 7ל्ָ or or
 No．11）noun fem．plur．（Paradigm A．）with suffix appended（§91）and conj．！prefixed with Shureq before the labial $口$（ $(\$ 10 t, 3, b$ ．） （prep．Mیֵ § 103，1，Rem．1），see on No． 31.
 common gender（ $\S 107,1, c$ ）plural（（ֶֶֶ liaradigm VI．），governing nibias in fem．pl．（§ 112，1）but the suffix of the next word in the masc．וּטְמַּנְּ （lit．and thou hast hid them）pret．for imper．accord－ ing to § $126,6, c$ ．

43．Ps．civ．24．ה？prop．interrog．pron．，but here an adverb of interrog．（lit．as to what？then how？sce $\S 100,2, e$ ，and Lexicon sub roce $)$ ． 127 （Parad．II．）pret．for present，according to § 126， 3.

 see also § $138,3, b$ ．．דָ for the sake of euphony with the art．（ $\S 35,1$ ，and $\S 93$ ，Rem．1）．

44．Judges xiv．18．Sce $§ 37,1$, Rem．for and with prep．（§ 102，1）which here denotes the comparative（sce § 119，1）．

45．Gen．ix．20．
 $\S 48,2$ ）giving to the fut．the sense of the pret． （sce § 129）．נָטֵט（Parad．H．and F．）．
 Hiphil shortened from הַרָ（sce § īj，Rem．15， and § 48，5）．Conj．！with Pathach，according to § $28,2$.

47．Ex．xxi．12．Pיָּה，Para－ digms G．and P．）in constr．state，according to § 135，1． $\begin{aligned} & \text { In lit．and he has died＝so that，etc．，}\end{aligned}$
 Rem．1）with ！，according to $\S 104,1, d$ ．niv inf．
absol．put for emphasis（ $\S 131,3, a)$ before $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\sim}$ 3 pers．sing．masc．fut．Hophal．

48．Gen．iii．13．Sce on No．45．דֵ，Hiph．， Parad．G．and O．לive（see on No．32）fut．with Tav．cont．（ $\$ 48,2$ ）：observe distinction between Methegh and Silluq，according to Note $\dagger$ on p．34．

49． 1 Kings r．8．T心 sign of def．accusative in its separate or absol．form（ $\S 11 \%, 2$ ）．位 rel． pronoun（§ 36）here implying the demonstrative $=$ uhat（§ 123，2）．＇s．（§ 103，3，and § 29，4，a）．
 Obs．the two forms of תی̣ with suffixes（§ 103， Rem．1）．iֶֶ fem．suff． 3 pers．plur．

51．Judges ix．10，$\quad 2$ pere sing．fen．imper．
 noun， 2 pers．sing．fem．（ $\$ 32,2$ ），here expreseed with the verb for omplasis（see § 137，Rem．2）．$\because ?$ （ $m o t{ }^{2}$－khit＇），see $§ 46, \mathrm{Rem} .2$ ；and for the absence of Daghesh lene in $コ$ ，see $\S 21,2, a$ ．Sce $§ 103,3$.

 （lhärr－nū） 1 pers．plur．pret．Kal，with ₹ for＝on account of Silluq．

53．Amos ii．10．See § 137, Rem．2．A．f．（l＇ara－ digms D．and P．）．

54．Deut．xri．19．＊i（§ 100．1）before fut．ron （ $\quad$（2h？，Parad．G．）to express prolitition（see § 127.
 of constr．state of i．è（Parad．VI．h）．

55．Is．xxxuii．10．לא $(\S 100,1$ ，before fut，to er－ press dissuasion（ $\$ 127,3, c)$ ；distinction beween לs and Nit，see in § 152, Rom．Fevis，fut．Hiphil（see on No．48）with suff．，according to $\S 6.5,2,1 \mathrm{~cm}$ ．
 who－in him＝in thom，§123，1）．Sce §131，2，a．
i66．Ex．xrii．2．Sce on No．31．E＂̛ dual in appearance but plur．in fact（sce $\$ \mathrm{~s}^{8}, 1$ ．Kem．2）．
 $=$ thut，§ 128，1，c．

57．Jer．xiv．21．7ñ，Hiphil of（1＇arad．（i．）， sce § 127,3 ，c．险，prep．with suff．（see § 91，1， Rem．2）．
58. Josh. i. 3. See on No. 55. . given il), נָּוֹא (§66, Rem. 3), suff. is pers. sing.-On the arrangement of this sentence, see $\S 145,2$.
59. 2 Kings x . 32 . בּיָּ Fimglish, in them days), §122,1. המהל, l'arad. H. nis? ${ }^{2}$, Piiil, Parad. P.; see § 142, 2.
60. 2 Chron. x. 10. .

(61. Prov. vi. 6.
62. 2 Chron. xi. 4.


 digm IN.) with sufl. 3 pers. sing. masc. ( $\% \rightarrow$ for the usual i , $\mathbf{i} \mathfrak{0}$ ): distinctive accent Tiphcha (§ 15). Sce § 120, 5.

 § 58, 4). Rem.
65. Mal. ii. 10. Ellipsis, § 144. 与כ (Paradigm VIII. c.) with suffix (§ 91, 1, Rem. 2). Expression for reciprocal pronoun, § 124, liem. 4. לోก, reg. inf. constr. Piël, see §67, Rem. 10.
66. Lev. xii. 4. On the construction of the
 (r. (r.
 (tǒ- $l^{\circ} r u^{\prime} h$, see p. 28, No. 2, $a$, and $\S 14,1$ ), טicni (Parad. VI. f.) with suff. 3 pers. sing. fem., distinguished by the Mappiq from the ending of the fom.


## II. EXTRACTS IN PROSE.

1. Tife Priests' Benediction.

Num. vi. 22-26.
V. 22. Vai conr. prefixed without Daghesh forte (§ 49, 2, and § 20, 3, b, Rem.). Tizw (Dagh. forte conjuntive, $\S 20,2, a$ ), inf. with prep. (lit. to say)

 inf. absol. standing for fut. or imper., according to § $131,4, b$.
V. 2ธ. ראָּ, IIiphil of nin (Paradigm M., jussive
 sing. masc. fut. Kal with suffix with Nun epenthetic (§ 58,4 ), anl ! prefixed according to § 104, 2, c.
** In reading these Extracts, it may be well to learn more of the names and uses of the Accents ( $\$ 15$ ).

## 2. Jotham's Parable.

Judges ix. 6-15.
V. 6. at or by, see Lex. B, 2 .
V. 7. to $\S 137,3, b$.
V. 8. Sce § 131, 3, a.-Obs. מָלְ with small circle referring to the margin, where a different form of the word is given (see § 17 ). Both the
 sense, and stand for 2 pers. sing. masc. imper. Kal, with He paragogic (§ 48,5). This Hethibh form of the imper. is not recognised in the grammars, but it occurs also in Ps. xxvi. 2 : comp. verse 12 below.
V. 9. המה Mret. Kal (the Chateph-Qamets irregular for Qamets, with He iuterrog. § 100, 4, Rem.), used for fut., according to $\S 126,4$. ' which in me God and men honour (see § 127, 2).草 pret. with V'ac. conv. (see § 48, 3, and § 126, 6, a). לְנוּע (inf. with prep.) to wave.
V. 10. Sce on No. 51 above.


[^153]fem．sing．with the art．，because its noun has a suff． （sce § 111，2，and § 112，1）．
 verse 8.

V．13． to $\S 20,3, b$ ），answering to our relative pron．with the indicative，which cheers．


## 3．Elijait＇s Ascension． <br> 2 Kings ii．1－12．

V．1．יַיִּ conv．（§ 49,2 ），used for tense of narration（§ 129 ，

 verse 11）with Chateph－Qumets irreg．，which is noticed in the margin הסט בחטק קמט，i．e．，the D with Chateph－Qamets．Dinu（No．10，p．270； § 118,1 ）．

V．2． （lit．living is Jehovah and the life of thy soul）as Jehorah liveth and by the life of thy soul，a form of oath ：${ }^{n}$ const．st．§ 89，2，c．D巛̣ if＝not，sce Lex． C．1，e．בֵּת－תیM（also in the next verse）in the ad－ verbial accusative，$\S 118,1$.

V．3．ain prop．the day＝this day，see § 109，at


V．5．in whep prep．prefixed，according to § 102，


V．6．הָּירְּרּנָּ tro＝both of them，§ 97，Rem． 2.

V．7．Construction of the numeral，§ 120,2 ．
 fem．（Parad．D．）．．בָָ，see above on No．63．；conj． with Qamets，see above on No．47．$\frac{\exists}{y}$ prep．with art．（§ 35,2, B．$b$ ，and Rem．2）．

V．9．ם （sce also above on No．25）．！and $=$ thut after
 be，pray，a portion of two in thy spirit to me，i．c． may I have a double portion（twice as much as any one else）of thy spirit（comp．Deut．xxi．17）：तe see § 96.
 ask，i．e．thou hast asked a hard thing，see $\S 142,4$ ，


V．11．Lit．and it was，they walking to walk and to speak，that lo！a chariot，ctc．：see § 134，2，a or $c$ ，and $\S 131,3, b$ ．ליֵ fut．Kal of הi， adverbial accus．（ $(118,1$ ）．

V．12．\％according to § 28，2．P答？part．Piel， § 64，3．．Israel＇s churiot and his horsemen．－Observe，that in Hebrew two or more nouns cannot be in the construct state before the same genitive（sec Note＊on § 114，1）：c．g． $\begin{gathered}\text { 7 }\end{gathered}$ hsּרְ place，and hence the language required cither the expression of the genitive after each noun（ 2 ？筑 （＂́）or the use of the pos ensive pronoun after the second noun（as exhibited in this verse），or the pe－ riphrastic construction（see § 115）which（xpresses the genitive in the manner of the dative $2 \begin{aligned} & \text { ？}\end{aligned}$
 Israel）．－There are some apparent exceptions，as in
 of－benders of the bow；but the two nouns in the construet state are here in apposition，just like解 virgin dungher of Pigyph，in verso 11 of the same chapter（see § 116,5 ）．

[^154]
## III. EXTRACTS IN POETRY.

1. Part of the Song of Moses.

Deut. xxxii. 1-4.

*     * In this Eistract, the parallel members are clearly exhibited in separnte lines.
Y. 1. Article before vocative, § 110 , Rem. 2. -

V. 3. 12तָ. verb 'פּ. ל prep. (§ 102, 2, a).
V. 4. ר.jng the rock, i. e. Jehovah, case absol. (\$145, 2).-Large $s$ (so the marginal notice calls it) to mark out the word as having a peculiar use or mystic sense attached to it by the Masoretic authors (see § 3, 2).


## 2. Parabie of tife Degenerate Vinetard.

Isaiah v. 1-7.
 my beloved, i. c. Jehorah.
V. 2. נָּ with double accus. (§ 139, 2). הָּנָ, § 75 , Rem. 3.
 hence with verb plur. (§ 146, 1).
V. 4. Sce § 132, Rem. 1, 2.

 ל? lit. for to cat up $=$ to be caten up.
V. 6. 'וָלְלה וגו' (\$ 126,6 ) and it shall go up (i. e. grow) briar and thom (§ 138, 1, Rem. 2). מהּמְטִר lit. from to rain (§ 132, 2).
V. 7. Observe the striking paronomasia or alliteration between ?
 translation, thus, -he looked for right, and behold might! for weul, and behohl wov!

## 3. Praise of a Good Wife. <br> Prov. xxxi. 10-31.

*.* This piece is alphabetical, a sort of Hebrew Acrostick (§ 5, Rem. 2).
V. 10.
V. 11. Pret. for present (§ 126, 3).

 Rem.).
V. 15. בּנּע, either as noun (in continuance of) or as infinitive (in continuing of, § 132, 2), while it is yet night. Fut. with Vuv convers. for present (§ $128,3, a$ ).
 referring to the wife; but Kethibh either נִי ferring to the husband, or ? ? (Niphal, is planted), agreeing with as subject.
V. 18. Sense of $Q^{e} r i$ and $H^{e} t h i b h$ is here the same.
V. 20. לאעִִִ, §
V. 21. לָבְ, pass. part. with accus., § 143,1 .
 Hethibh (with the same sense) nisיל? probably derived from ${ }^{2}$ ?-2, but the former from $77_{7}^{7}$
V. 29. תוּㅋㅋ, adj. put before the noun either for emphasis, many women, etc., (see § 112,1, Rem. 1), or as predicate, many are the women who, etc. (see
 Rem. 2.
 put prominently in nom. case absol. (§ 145, 2).Obscrve, the crowning praise of a good wife is the fear of the Lord or piety. See §54, Rem., at the end.

$$
\Sigma
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 (1) 3



[^0]:    constructed for bagster's gesenius's nebrew lexicon and grammar.

[^1]:    * From Shem were derived (Gen. x. 21, ete.) the Aramean and Arabian races as well as the Hebrew, but not the Cananaites (Phemicians), who are derived from Ham (ve. 6, 15, etc.), though their langunge is deeidedly Shemitic. The Assyrian language has been proved, after long uncertuinty, to be Shemitic, as might indeed be presumed, since Asshur also stands among the Shemites in Gen. x. 22 ; where too the Elamites stand, whose language is not yet ascertained.
    $\dagger$ See Rödiger's F.xcurs zu Wellsted's Reisen in Arabien (Halle, 1842), Bil. II., S. 361.
    $\ddagger$ See Tueh in d. Zeitschr. d. deutschen Morgenl. Gesellschaft, Bd. III., S. 129 ff .

[^2]:    * The most ancient passage where Aramæan words, as such, occur, is Gen, xxxi. 47. Comp. also the Aramæan verse in Jer. x. 11.
    
    ${ }_{+}+$See Rüdliger in cler Zeitschrift fiir die Funde des Morgenlandes, B. 1I., S. 77 ff.
    § See Gesenius in ll. Allg. Lit. Zeitung, 1839, No. 77 ff., 1841, No. 40. Th. Benfey über das Verhältniss der ïsypt. Sprache zum Semit. Sprachstamme, Leipzig, 1844, swo. Schwartze in den Alten Aegypten, and in Bunsen's Acsyiten, I., S. $5: 2$, etc.

[^3]:    * For the use of the terms, stens and roots, see § 30, liemarks 1 and 2.-Tr.
    $\dagger$ Gesenius has attempted, in the later editions of his Lexicon, and in his Thesaurus Limguc Hebrace, to exhilit the points of contact between the Shemitic and the Indo-Germanic languages, and others have carried this comparison farther, or taken it up in their own fashion. But it needs great caution and a comprehensive knowletge of the relations of sounds in both families, in order to avoil error and deception, which present themselves in investigations of this kind more readily and frequently than in any other. In this process, it is as expedient to keep that distinct which does not hear all the marks of affinity, as it is to discover at a glanee what is likely to contain all points of agreement. This, however, may he confilently relied upon, that these two pareut-languages do not staml in a sisterly or any close relationship to cach other, and that the characteristic structure of hoth must be dissected before we ean discover the constituent elements which they possess in common. This comparative analysis, however, helongs to the province of the Lexien rather than that of the Grammar.
    $\ddagger$ That the Celtic dialects (not unlike the Shemitic in their relation to each other, namely, Welsh, Cornish,

[^4]:    Armorican or dialect of Brittany ; Gaelic, Erse; Manks) belong to the Indo-Germanic family, admits of abundant proof; see Pritchard's Eustern Origin of the Celtic Nations, and Pictet de $l$ Affinité des Langues Celtiques avec le Sanscrit.-Tr.
    *The Fthiopic is the only exception; but its deviation from the Shemitic usage is probably an innovation by the first missionaries who introluced Christianity into that country, for its earlier mole of writing, as an ancient inscription shows, was like the kindred southern Arahic (IIinyaritic), also from right to left. See Rödiger in $d$. Zeitschrift f. d. Kunde des Morgenlandes, Bl. II., S. 332, etc., and his Notes to Wellsted's Reisen in Arabien, II., 376, etc.

[^5]:    * A new point of importance for observation would accrue, if it should be provel that the language of the cunciform inscriptions found in Aramaean districts be Shemitic. But this subject rests as yet upon too uncertain a basis to engage our attention here.
    $\dagger$ The language of the Beduins in the Arabian desert has still preserved some of the antiquated forms. See Burckhard's Travels in Arabia, Append. VIII., p. 466, his Notes on the Beduins and Wuhabys, p. 244; Wallin in d. Zeitschr. d. Morgenl. Ges., Bd. V. (1851), S. 1, etc. ; VI., S. 190, etc., 369, etc.

[^6]:     Lebanon and on the Syrian coast, whom we call lhonicians, while they are called ${ }^{j} \dot{j}$ on their own coins. Also the people of Carthage went by the same name.
    $\dagger$ For an able defence of the genuineness of the hatter part of Isaiah, sce ILengstenherg's Christology of the Oli T'est., vol. i., p. 398 ff ., of Keith's translation, or in the American Bib. Repository, vol. i. p. roo, ete. ; also Havernick's Einleitung ins Alte Testument, §s 217-220. That of the P'entateueh has also been suceessfully vindicated by many distinguished eritics. See a valuable article on the subjeet in the Ameriuan Bubliotheca Sucru, vol. ii., No. 6.-Tr.

[^7]:    * In Isaiah's time (2nd half of the 8th century before Christ) the more educated Hebrews, at least the officers of state, understood Aramaean, as is expressly mentioned in 2 Kings xviii. 26 ; comp. Is. xxxvi. 11.
    $\dagger$ Translated in the Biblical Repository, No. IN.-Tr.

[^8]:    * See a defence of the earlier date and the genuineness of Jonah, in Htivernick's Eiiuleitung ins A. Test, §§ 242-247.-Tr.

[^9]:    * On the origin and earliest history of Hebrew lexicography, see the preface of Gesenius to the thi edition of his Heb. IIanduörterbuch. On the first grammari:us, see also Sam. David Luzzatto's Prolegomeni ad una gramm. rugionata della lingua ebruica (Padova, 1836), p. 26 foll.; H. Ewald and L. Dukes's Beitrïge zur Geschichte der ̈̈ltesten Auslegung und Spracherhlierung des Alten Test. (Stuttg. 1844, 3 vols. 8vo.); II. Hupfeld, de rei grammatica apul Judaos initiis antiquissimisque scriptoribus (Hatle, 1846, 4to.) ; Munk, Notice sur Aboul-Walid et sur quelques autres grammairiens hébreut du $\mathrm{X}^{e}$ et du XI siècle, in the Jour nal Asiatiquc, 1850.

[^10]:    * On the ancient IIebrew signet stones, see Rödiger in d. Zeitsch. der deutschen Morgenl. Gesellschaft, Bd. III. (1849), S. 243 and 347.
    $\dagger$ 'These letters are supplied with vowels and pronounced together, thus $\mathfrak{y}$. Such roces memoriales were invented hy the early Hebrew grammarians to assist in remembering certain elasses of letters.
    $\ddagger$ See the works of Young, Champollion, and others, on the Hieroglyphics. Lepsius exhibits the chief results in his Lettre ì M. Rossclini sur Talphabet hiéroglyphique. Rom. 1837, 8vo. Comp. Gesenius in der Allgem. Litt. Zuitung, 1839. No. 77-81. Hitzig, die Erfindung des Alphabets. Zürieh, 1840, fol. J. Olshausen über den Ur:sprung des Alphabels. Kiel, 1841, Svo.

[^11]:    * Important aid may also be derived from an accurate physiologieal observation of the whole system of sounds, and of their formation by the organs of speech. See on this subject Liskovius's Theorie der Stimme, Leiprig, 1814; J. Miiller's Hundluch der Physiologie, Bil. II. S. 179, etc.; also Stroltmann's Auatomische Vorhalle zur Physiologie der Stimme und der Sprachlaute, Altona, 1837. In its reference to grammar, see II. Itupfeld, ron der Nutur wurl den Arten der Sprachluute, in Jahn's Juhribuicher f. Philolugie, 1829, H. 4; and I1. F. Bindseil's Abhandhungen zur allgem. vergleichenden Sprachlehre, Hamb., 1838. I. Mhysiologic der Stimm-und Sprachlente, S. 1, ctc.

[^12]:     as $g$ in go；$コ$ and $\supset$ both as $k$ ．If one wishes to give the aspirated sound of $a$ and $\beth$ ，let him pronounce $g$ and $k$ ， rolling the palate with the same breath，the former as the German $g$ in sagen，and the latter as ch in ich．－Tre．

[^13]:    * For the sound of these vowels, see note on § 8.-Tr.

[^14]:    * So in Sanscrit, the ancient Persian cunciform writing, and Ethiopic, short a alone of all the vowels is not indicated by any sign, but the simple consonant is pronouncel with this vowel.
     admits of easy physiologieal explanation, if we attend to the formation of these sounds by the organs of specech. The vowel A is formed by opening the mouth without changing the position of the organs; so also A and $\mathrm{N} . \mathrm{U}$ is sounded in the fore part of the mouth, with the lips a little projecting and rounded; so also 1 [our $\left.w^{r}\right]$. And 1 is formed at the fore part of the palate; so also " [our $y$ ]. E sounds at the back of the palate, between $i$ and $a ; \mathrm{O}$ in the under part of the mouth, between $u$ and $a$.
    $\ddagger$ The Phonicians did not indicate even the long vowels, except in very rare eases, and their oldest monuments lhave searcely any vowel signs. (Sce Mon. Phanicia, pp. 57, 58 ; and ante, § 2, 2.)

[^15]:    ＊The vowels，as represented in this translation，are supposed to be sounded as follows ：－ $\bar{a}$ or $\hat{a}$ like $a$ in father ； $\check{a}$ like $a$ in fat；$\ddot{a}$ like $a$ in fate； $\bar{e}$ or $\hat{e}$ like $e$ in there；$\breve{e}$ like $e$ in $\mathrm{crr} ; \bar{\imath}$ like $i$ in pique； $\mathfrak{\imath}$ like $i$ in $p i c k ; \bar{o}$ or $\hat{o}$
    
    $\dagger$ It is not given in the six latest editions of the original．$-\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{r}}$ ．

[^16]:    * Only very recently we have been made acquainted with a vowel system in many respects different from the common one. It is found at Odessa, in some MSS. coming from Persian Jews. All the vowels besides iare placed above the consonants, and deviate almost throughout in figure, and partly also in respect to the sound. Thus, for instance, Pathach and Seghol, when they have the tone, are expressed by the same sign; but the short vowels without the tone are marked variously, according as they stand in a sharpened syllable, by Daghesh forte (§ 12) or not. The accents deviate less, and stand partly under the line of the consonants. Comp. Pinners Prospectus of the Ancient Heb. and Rabbin. MSSS., belonging to the Odessa Society for History and Antiquities, Od. 1845, 4to.; and a sketch of this Persian Jewish vowel system, by Rödiger, in the Halle Allgem. Lit. Zeit. 1848, Aug., No. 169.
    $\dagger$ The vowel sign, which serves to determine the sound of the vowel letter, is said to be homogeneous with that letter. Many, after the example of the Jewish grammarians, use here the expression, "The rowel letter rests (quiesces) in the vowel sign." Hence the letters, and (with $\mathfrak{N}$ and $\pi$, see $\S 23$ ) are called literce quiescibiles; when they serve as vowels, quiescentes, when they are consonants, mobiles. But the expression is not suitable; we should rather say, "The vowel letter is sounded as this or that vowel, or stands in place of the vowel." The vowel letters are also called by grammarians, matres lectionis [since they partly serve as guides in reading the unpointed text].

[^17]:    * The same historical relation may be shown in the Phenician, and in the Aralic where $\mathbb{N}$ is used ns a vowel letter,-in the latter especially, by means of the older Koran MSS, und the writing on coins.
    $\dagger$ The $y$ in this case should be sounded as much as possible like $y$ in yot, not ns in nay.-Tr.

[^18]:    ＊In the Arabic，this short $a$ is still continued．
    $\dagger$ When the tone is marked in this book，the sign $二$ is put over the first letter of the syllable，see $\S 15,1,3 .-\mathrm{Tr}_{\mathrm{r}}$ ．

[^19]:    

[^20]:    
    $\dagger$ This case is connected with the foregoing, so far as the second Qamets-chatuph is sprung from ChatephQamets.
    $\ddagger$ In the table $\S 9,12$, the half vowels have already been exhibited for the sake of a more complete view. We express them by letters of a small type.
    § The name Ni, is written also N:

[^21]:    * This is not unusual in the Phenician language, e. g. מִלְלָה Malacea, gubulim (see Gesen. Mon. Phenicia, p. 436, Mover's article, Phönizien, in the Encyclop,, ete., p. 436). Comp. the Latin auginent, in momordi, pupugi, with the Greek in tétuфa, тєтvцрévos, and the old form memordi.
    $\dagger$ Sce especially Juda Chayúg, p. 4 and p. 200 of the edition by Dukes, also in Ibn. Eara's Tsuchoth, p. 3, Gesenius's Lehrgebüude der heb. Sprache, S. 68.

[^22]:    * So thought Juda Chayúg among the Jewish grammarians.
    $\dagger$ Daghesh in 1 is easily distinguished from Shureq, which never admits a vowel or Sheva under or before the 1 . The T'av with Daghesh (i) ought to have the point not so high up as the Vav with Shureq (i). But this difference is often neglected in typography.

[^23]:    * These accents are marked in the following list with an asterisk. On the mark + and $\dagger$ see below, Rem. 2 .

[^24]:    * [In the present edition, although we have used this mark (>) in the body of the work, we have adopted this $(-)$ instead, in the tables of the pronouns and conjugations, as the more convenient.]
    $\dagger$ This has the same form with Melhegh (§ 16, 2); but they are readily distinguished, as Silluq always stands on the last tone-syllable of a verse, while Methegh never stands on the tone-syllable.

[^25]:    * See the first article on each letter in Gescnins's Hebrew Lexicon, translated and ellited by Dr. Tregelles. Small Quarto. Bagster and Sons.

[^26]:    * In the Punic, Thio malkh (king) is in this way contracted to mókh (see Mon. Phoenicia, p. 431 ).

[^27]:     words must be a monosyllable, or accented on the penultima.
    $\dagger$ This distinetion may be illustrated by the English word alley compared with alloy.-Tr.
    $\ddagger$ The doubling of a final letter is also omitted in Latin, as fel (for fell) gen. follis, mel gen. mellis, ôs gen. ossis. In the ancient German, the doubling of eonsonants never took place at the end of a worl, hut always in the middle, as val (Fall) gen. valles, stam (Schwamm), ete. ; Grimm's Dertsche Gramm, 2nil ed. I. 383.

[^28]:    * A particularly instructive case occurs in $\S 45,3$, in the Inf. with prefixes.
    $\dagger$ Comp. terra and the French terre; the Germ. Rolle and the French rile; Germ. drollig. and Fr. drile. In this omission, we see the diminished vigour of the language. The fresher and more original sounds of the Arabic ( $\$ 1,6$ ) still admit the doubling of the gutturals.

[^29]:    * The preference of $r$ for the vowel $a$ is seen also in Greek, e. g. in the feminine of adjectives ending in pos, as
    

[^30]:    * A very few examples are found in proper names, as when when are compounded of two words, and in many MSS, are also written in two separate words. One other case, Jer, xlvi. 20, is alsu in the printed text divided by Maqqeph, in order to bring the quiescent in at the end of a word.

[^31]:    * An exception is 4 for ! and, see $\S 26,1$, and $\S 104,2, b$.
    $\dagger$ Instances in which no contraction takes place after a short $a$ are,
    
     constr.

[^32]:     for is uritten in Arabic N.
    $\dagger$ When any addition is to be made to the ending $i_{\vee}$, it is written ${ }_{\square}-$, and sometines also the original ${ }^{\circ}-$ is restored. See § 93, 9, Rem.

[^33]:    * It may be questioned whether 4 in the above position be a real exception; for nounced wiümülë̆kh (not ūmälĕkh), the 1 retaining its feeble consonant sound before the Shureq.-Tr.

[^34]:    * This is certainly a fundamental law in IIcbrew, as its pronunciation is now indieated by the rowel signs, but not a matter of absolute necessity, for other languages very often have short wowels in open syllables, as irivern, Arab. qütulŭ. At an earlier period the Hebrew, like the Arabic, most probahly had short vowels in those open syllables in which the vowel was not essentially long, and the present pronunciation is derived in part from the solemn, slow, and chanting way of reading the Old Testament in the synagogues.
    $\dagger$ The Arahic has for this pretonic vowel constantly a short vowel; the Chatlee only a vocal Shera, jinh to them,解: , לְבֶב, , which is the case also in Hebrew, when the tone is shiftel furwarll ( $\$ 27,3, a$ ). But this pretonic vowel must not be regarded as if it had been adopted, perhaps in place of Sheva, on account of the tone on the following syllable ; but it originally belongs to this place, and the circumstance of its standing hefore the tonesyllable only causes it to remain, whilst it is reduced to a vocal She va upon the shifting forward of the tone.

[^35]:    
    $\dagger$ Sce $£ 9$, 2. Short Chireq ( $i$ ) occurs only in the particles and because followed by Maqgeph.

[^36]:    * The vowel, which here disappears on the shiting of the tone forward, is the so-ealled pretonic rowel in an open syllable, concerning which see in $\S 9,1,2$, and $\S 26,3$.

[^37]:    
    $\dagger$ Analogous to this attenuating of $\check{a}$ into $\check{\imath}$, is the Latin tango, attingo; lazus, prolizus; and to that of $\check{a}$ into $\check{e}$, (in Lem. 2) the Latin carpo, decerpo; spargo, conspergo.

[^38]:    * There is no instance of a similar use of 2 and $\boldsymbol{\eta}$, which would in that case likewise require Daghesh. The use of Fivin in Prov. xxx. 6 (shortened from goin) is the only exception; and in some MSS. the has Daghesh.
    $\dagger$ With the exception, however, of $\mathbb{N}$, as the $\mathfrak{N}$, the helping vowel may also be omitted, as Non sin, 心! valley.
    $\ddagger$ In this form ( $\$ 65,2$ ) Dughesh lene remains in the fimal $T$ 'ur, just as if no vowel preceded ( $\S 22,2$ ), in order to indicate that the helping P'uthach has a very short sombl, and at the same time to suggeyt
     false epithet furlive given to this helping vowel, in connexion with the notion that such a vowel must be sounded before the consonant, caused the decided mistake, which long had its defenders, viz., that inhei should be read
     analogous is $\overbrace{\square}$ !. yichŭd (from

[^39]:    * Even the prose of the IIebrews procecds, according to the accentuation, in a lind of Iambic rhythm. That the authors of the system intended to secure this object is evident, particularly from the application of Methegh.

[^40]:    * Such a pausal syllable is sometimes strengthened further by doubling the following consonant, $\S 20,2, c$.

[^41]:    - Letters which are not found associated as radicals are called incompatible. They are chiefly such as too
     ns ל, 7, which are often found associated, c. g. in לרֶ
    

[^42]:    * Especially in Athiopic, where these forms are very frequent ; see Hupfeld's Excreitatt. AEthiop. pp. 24 foll.
    $\dagger$ Comp. Hupfeld's System der semitisehen Demonstrativbildung und der dumit zusammenhiangenden Pronominal $=$ und Partikelnbildung, in der Zeitschrift für die Nunde des Morgenlundes, Bd. II. S. 124 ff. 427 fi.

[^43]:     V. 2, 35, Gesenii Mon. Phanicia, pp. 376, 437). A trace of this form is found in the Ethiopic qatalhu (I have killed). In ancient Egyptian, ANK (pronounced anok).

[^44]:    * Some rare exceptions occur ; sce in Lev. xiii. 10; xx. 17.

[^45]:    * See an exception in § 121, 3.
    $\dagger$ 'That a palatal ( $k$ ) and lingual ( $l$ ) are liable to be exchanged, is manifest from the speech of young children, who frequently confoum them, as likkic for lille. Obvious instances of this exchange are found in many languages,
     strong presumption that the promoun of the secome person in the Shemitic languages must have had two forms, one with $k$ and the other with $\ell$, as

[^46]:    * In most languages the demonstratives begin with $d$, hence callel the demonstrative somnd, which is, however, interchanged with a sibilunt [as in Heb, ה!] or a rough breathing. Thus in Aram. Nרָ, , dha; Sanskr. sa, sū, tut, [Gr. $\dot{o}, \dot{\eta}, \tau \dot{o}]$, Goth. sa, s仑̂, thatu; Germ. dan; der, dic, dus [our the, thie, that; Welsh dyna; hyn, hyna], ete.

[^47]:    * See Wullin in the Zeitschr. der D. Morgenl. Ges. Bd. vi. s. 195. 217.

[^48]:     Mom. Phanicia, p. 438. Mover's Phenic. Text I. p. 81, etc., II. p. 44. Comp. abore, § 2, 5. Also in morlern Hebrew $\because \underset{\sim}{\circ}$ has hecome quite preduminant.

[^49]:    * The Infinitive is here used for the sake of brevity in most grammars end lexicons, thus to learn, prop. he has learned.

[^50]:    * The term Conjugalions, therefore, is evidently to be taken here in a different sense than in Greek and Jatin grammar.
    $\dagger$ This verb, on account of the guttural which it contains, is unsuitable for a Paradigm, and has heen exehanged for ${ }^{7}$, which possesses this advantage, that all its conjugations are actually in use in the Old Tristament. There is, however, some indistinctness in the pronunciation of some of its forms, as

[^51]:    in common use since the time of Danz, obviates this inconvenience, and is especially adapted to the comparative treatment of the Shemitic languages, inasmuch as it is found with a slight change (Arab. and Ethiop. לתק) in all of them. In Hebrew, it is true, it has only the forms of Gal, which are not frequent, and occur only in poetry; yet it may be retained as a type or model sanctioned by usage.
    *See note on "the Future and its inflection," $£ 47$ ", p. 79 .-Tr.

[^52]:    * The term defective, by which some designate this class, we apply to those whose forms are not ali in use (§78).

[^53]:    * A verb middle $A$ is one that has Pathach or Qamets under the middle radical or in the second syllatle ; a verl, middle $E$, one that has Tsere; and a verb midille $O$, one that has Cholem.-Tr.
    $\dagger$ On the intimate connexion between the Ireterite and the verbal adjective, see what has heen already sail, $\$ 39,1$. In intransitive verbs they have the same form, as אי? full, or he is full; ;? small, or he is small. In
    
    

[^54]:    
    
     the notice of the beginner.

[^55]:    * Almost all these forms, which in Itelirew are unfrequent, are the usual ones in the kindred dialects, and may, in a proper sense, he ealled Chaldaisms, Syriasms, and Arahisms.
    $\dagger$ In Röliger's Paradigms, the Iuf. constr., as the predominant form,' is put before the other, under the name of Infinitive, кar ' $\xi^{\prime} \circ \chi \eta^{\prime} \nu$; but we deviate in this respect in our Tables of the present edition.-Dintr.

[^56]:    $\dagger$ The Inf. absol. also is occasionally used, hike the Greek Infinitive, for the Imperative ( $\S(131,4, b$ ). But this is mo ground for taking the Imperative to be properly an Infinitive; for the Inf. absol. stands also for a Present, lerfect, and Future. It might rather be supposed, that the Inper. is a shortening of the 2 nd person of the Future (קט? , from hinp ; but in reality these three forms are each independent, and have not sprung one from another, 1)ut stand all alike on the basis of the abstract verb $(\$ 39,1)$. The inflexion of the Imper. may certainly have been horrowed from the Future.
    $\ddagger$ An Imper. is found twiee (Ezc. xxxii. 19; Jer. xlix. 8) in Hophal, but with a reflexive meaning.

[^57]:    * In this translation the grammatical terms, used by Gesenius himself, and by most other Helraists, nre generally retained, in preference to those adopted by Röldiger after the example of Ewald. A general change of the terminology would oceasion inconvenience and some perplexity, particularly in nsing the best Ifebrew lexicons now extant, while it would seareely secure advantages to counterbalance. Aceordingly the tenses are here designated lyy the usual nanes. By Rödiger, however, the Future is catled Imperfect, as expressing what is unfinished, in progress, and future ; in contradistinction from the P'erfect, which expresses what is actually finished and past, or conceived to be so (see in the Syntax, § 125). It may be added, that Prof. Lee calls the Future the Present tense. In this, however, he seems to stand alone.-Tr.
    $\dagger$ There is this striking difference in the formation of the two tenses, that the more ohigetive Preterite begins with the verbal stem, and ends with the pronominal sign as something subordinate; while the Future, on the contrary, begins with the pronoun denoting the subject from which the action of the verb proceeds. See more in the Syntax, § 123, etc.

[^58]:    * This is also the proper gender of the plural syllable $\bar{u} n, \bar{u}$. It is true that in the Pret. the Hebrew emplors it for hootl genders; but in the kindred tongues, it stands even in the Pret. for the masculine alone; as in Syriac, mas qǔtalūn, fem. quéalūēn, so in Arabic, mas. qútalū, fem. qatálna.

[^59]:    * It is worthy of remark, that the Chronicles often omit the Niun where it stands in the books of Kings; sco 1 Kings viii. 38,43 ; comp. 2 Chron. vi. 29 , 33 . -1 Kings xii. 24 ; 2 Kings xi. 5 ; coun. 2 Chron. xi. 4 ; xxiii. 4.

[^60]:    * Since it changes in a degree the meaning of the tenses, it is called liy the Hebrew grammarians [including Gesenius] Vav conversive (i. e. converting the Fut. into the Pret. and the Pret. into the Fut.). Better [in the opinion of Rüliger, who fullows Ewald] is the term T'av conseculive. since it essentially denotes sequence or progress.
    

[^61]:     bup?: it was (hat) he killed, is in every respect erroneous, and now nearly obsolete. The $!\underline{l}$ is everywhere an emphatic aud. When entire sections and books of the Old Testament begin with it, it is a proof that they were rither originally connected with what precedes them, or have been afterwards thus combined together (Lev., Num., Jush., 1 Sain., 2 Sam., Ruth, Est.) ; so indeed do some books begin with the simple copulative ! (Ex., $1 \mathrm{ki} .$, Ezzr.). Equally unfounded is the opinion that it is a contraction of לup:
    $\dagger$ As to whether the hastening of the tone forward expresses in itself the reference to the future, and, on the
    
     hut as used for a present tense ( $\$ 134,2)$, and accordingly holding the middle place between the Preterite and the Future.

[^62]:    * In other languages, too, the change of the reflexive into the passive is observed. It is still clear in Sanskrit and in Greek how the middle goes before the passive voice; the $r$ at the end of the Latin passive is the reflexive pronoun $=s e$; in the ancient Slavic and Bohemian, amat-se stands for amatur, in Dacoromanic io me laudu (I am praised). See Pott's Etymologische Forschungen, Th. 1, S. 133 ff., Th. 2, S. 92 ; Bopp's Vergleichende Grammatik, S. 656 ff.

[^63]:    * Analogous examples, in which the doubling of a letter has an intensive foree, are found in the German words, reichen, recken; streichen (stringo, Anglo-Saxou strecan), strecken; comp. Strich, Strecke; Wacker; from urachen: others in which it has the causative signification, are stechen, stecken; wachen, wecken; in Greek vid入o to bring to an end, from the stem $\tau^{\prime} \lambda \omega$ to end, yevvá to beget and to bear, from yéve to come into being. The ahove examples from tho German show also that $c h$, when doubled, takes the form of $k k, c h$, in accordance with the laws relating to the Daghesh in IIebrew ( $£ 13,3$ ).

[^64]:    * In Arabic, denominatires of Conj. IT. often express injury done to a member, the removal of vermin or of any ininrious thing. This force is not wholly wanting, also, in the simplest Conj. I. Comp. Hebrew Kal ר范) to buy and sell grain; Lat. causari, pradari, etc.

[^65]:    The causative and transitive signification of Hiphil is sometimes employed after a mode of conception familiar to the Hebrew, for the expression of ideas, which other languages express by

[^66]:    * The verb proluce fat upon his body, Job xv. 27 ; to make fruits, to make branches, for, to produce, to put forth, Hos. viii. 7 ; Jub xiv. 9. Compare in Latin, corpus facere, Justin. 11, 8 ; robur facere, Hirtius, Bell. Afr. 85 ; sobolem, divitias, facere, Plin., and in Italian, far corpo, far forze, far frutto.

[^67]:    * See also in Hebrew צֶחְחֵּ 2 Chron. xx. 35.

[^68]:    * We treat of this subject here in connexion vith the regular verb, in order to show in it the general analogy. As to the irregular verbs, the mode of shortening their forms before the suffixes will be noticed under each class.
    $\dagger$ On the cases where the former must be employed, see $\S 121,4$, Rem.

[^69]:    * חֶ occurs very seldom as verbal suffix (Deut. xxxii. 26) ; iֶ not at all. Yet they are given in the list as being ground-forms, which frequently occur with nouns and prepositions.
    $\dagger$ Traces of this lost form appear still in the afformatives of the Xthiopic Preterite, as qatalka (thou hast killed), and also in the Samaritan (see Gesenii Anecduta Orientalia, p. 43). Comp. what was said in § 44, 1 , on The firms with $t$ and $k$ are not unfrequently interehanged in languages generally (see $\S 33,3$, note).
    $\ddagger$ We retain the common name union-vouel [Bindevocal], although it rests on a rather superficial view, and is somewhat vague. 'These union-sounds seem, for the most part, to be residues of ancient terminations of the verb,
     on the other hand, the Heb. qelulatni and the Arab. qatalutni.

[^70]:    * The short $a$ here belongs probalily also to the form of the verb itself. See the preceding $\S 3, b$, note.

[^71]:    * This form is also foumd as feminine without a suffix, Ier. xlix, 11; 1:ze. xxxvii. 7.

[^72]:    * See the general view of the classes, in $\S 41$.

[^73]:    * Hopheal, which is not exhihited in the Paradigm, is varied like Kal. Hiphil is regular.

[^74]:    * The verb נָנְ , employed as a Paradigm, has the Ful. A, which is not presented, however, as the most usual form of the Fut. in verbs of this class, but only as the actual form of this particular verb. The Tsere in 泡: is owing to the double feebleness of the stem

[^75]:    * 'The explanaticn given here of this inserted vowel may certainly suffice, if an approximation be supposed between
    
    $\dagger$ It might seem far more easy, in explaining the origin of the Fut. בס' (as well as of the Fut. in verbs iy, oip;) to regarl it as formed from the contracted stem-syllable ' $^{\circ}$ by prefixing ', so also Hiph. and Hoph. But the mechmically easier way is not ahwars the natural one.

[^76]:    ＊But comp．iob

[^77]:    * On the $a$ under the preformative, see No. 4.

[^78]:    * The Jussive signification in these examples is the reason that they have Tsere like the Inp. But this will not apply to all other cases; and, besides, the reading in many instances is doubtful between ( $(\bar{*}$ ) and $(\bar{v})$. See Gen. xxvi. 29 : Lev. xviii. 7; Jos. vii. 9; ix. 24; Dan. i. 13 ; 1Fze. v. 12.

[^79]:    * This has been called, hy Gesenius himself and others, the declension of the Ilelirew nomn. $\dagger$ On the feminines not distinguished ly the furm, see § 107, 1, 3, 4.

[^80]:    * The ending $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{r}}$ in these words has been taken for the termination of the Aramean emphatic state, so making
     at least that the Arancan form was not recognised; $b$ ) That the examples in part belong to the more ancient
     nccusative with adverbial signification noctu, and then used simply for nox, no regard being had to the ending,
    
    $\dagger$ This ending ${ }^{+} \underset{\sim}{T}$, too, has been compared with that of the Aram. cmphatic state, or has been regarded as an accusative-ending.
    $\ddagger$ A consonamtal $n h$ is quite out of the question in this ending.

[^81]:    * From this rox memorialis ( $\$ 5$, p. 14, Note $\dagger$ ) the nominue cucta are also called, liye the old grammarians, nomina heemantica.

[^82]:    * Under the regular verb we here include the verb with gutturals, $\S \S 63-65$.

[^83]:    * No. 21 may he regarded also as a mere modification of No. 3.

[^84]:    * On the formation of feminines without the Daghesh, see $\S 94$, Rem. 2.

[^85]:    * On the connexion between all these endings, see Dietrich's Abhumullungen zur Heb. Grammatik, Leeipzig, 1846, 8vo., p. 62.

[^86]:    * See the adverbs in $\square_{-}^{-},{ }^{\circ} 100,3$. Dietrich loc. cit., p. 66.

[^87]:    * See Gesenii Thesaurus Ling. Hebraer, p. 629.

[^88]:    * In aecordance with the universal tendency of the tone, in the IIebrew language, to hasten towarils the end of words (§ 29, 1).
    $\dagger$ What is here said of the Hels. mode of expressing the relation of the genitive, is applicable in almost every particular also to the Celtic. In Welsh, for instance, they express word of God hy gair Dum, i. e. word-God, without any change in either noun. The close comexion in utterance is all that indieates the genitive case. - Tr.
     Fut. הִּלֶּ, see § 75, Rem. 1.

[^89]:    * See on this force of the accusative, $\S 118,1$.

[^90]:    * So likewise at times the accusative, § $118,1$.
    $\dagger$ In ancient combinations of words, endings are often retained which have disappeared elsewhere, or are hut seldom employed; e. g. the feminine-ending $\Omega=$ with the noun in the genitive connexion ( $\$ 4.2,2$, 4) and with the verb in connexion with suftixes ( $\$ 59,1$ ). In like manner, many peculiarities of the langunge are retainel in proper names, and also by the poets.

[^91]:    * See a case analogous in $\S 57,5$, Rem. 1. Comp. the double feminine-ending in $\S 80$, Rem. $2, f$.

[^92]:    * Ahout light and grave suffixes, see Nute on the two following pages.

[^93]:    ＊Grave suffixes are those which have always a strong accent or tone．Such are most sultixes of 2nd and 3ril

[^94]:    * This is contrary to the general rule (§27,3), since the tone is not throun formard. But as $\operatorname{H} \frac{>}{7}$ is mercly a secondary form ( $\$ 80,2$ ) derived from the original aceented termination $\Pi_{-}$, it is not strange that they should similarly affect the pointing of words to which they are appended.

[^95]:    * As these nouns, though primitives, follow the analogy of verbals ( $\$ 52,2$ ), it is necessary, in order to understand their inflexions, that we should know to which class of irregular verbs they respectively confurm.

[^96]:    * That the Hebrew numerals, from 1 to 10 , are worls of very high antiquity may be inferred from their essential coincidence in all the Shemitic tongues. Moreover, a principal ground for maintaining the historical affinity between these languages and the Indo-Germanic, is the fact that in buth families the mumerals from 1 to 7
    
     Sansk. saptrm, ancient Per. haptan, modern Per. haft, Gr. ënta, Lat. septem [Celtic seacht, alsu, saith], our scren;
    
    
     (Aram. חְְּר), Sansk. dea, Lat. duo [Celt. daut, do], etc. But a close analysis makes those apparent coincidences again doubtful (but not in the julgment of Gesenius, Ewald, ete.), because there is a great probalility, on the
     multitude) are to be traced back to the pure Shemitic stems truct (comp. ${ }^{\circ}$

[^97]:    ＊Shortened from lene in the Tav．
    $\dagger$ In the vulgar dialects of the Arabic，and in the 正thiopic，the feminine form of the numerals is used almost exclusively．This form appears in Hebrew also in the abstract use of the numerals（Gen．iv．15）．It may be added，that the feminine form is very frequently used for expressing the idea of plurality，as in collectives；see § 107，3，d．

[^98]:     an expression like undeciginti, but yet not so passable here. Besiles, this explanation would properly apply only to the fem., whereas the mase. also has must assume an inaccuracy. Others explain thas: something thought of in aldition to ten, from hevivi to think.
     shortened form, which, in other words of this class, appears first in the construct state. Analogy reguires ${ }^{\circ}{ }^{\prime}$
    

[^99]:    * Even short phrases are cuntracted into one word, e.g. German zwar from es ist wahr (il est rrai), Lat. forsitan from fors sit an, Fr. peut-être. In the Chinese, most of the particles are verhs or nouns; e. g. iù, to girc, employed as a sign of the dative ; $i$, to make use of, henee for; nëi, the interior, hence in.

[^100]:    * In these examples, the signification of the noun is put in parentheses, and inarked with an asterisk when it is still in use. On a similar feature in other languages, see W. Von Humbollt uber dic haveisprache, Bu. III., p. 621.

[^101]:    
     $\mathfrak{ּ 3}$, prop. in the house, hence, in (not from so, doubled as-so.

[^102]:    
     as plurals. Comp. the plural forms

[^103]:    * A few adjectives of this kinl, ia the form of passive participles, are :ixis of cedur, どM of brass, comp. cmeatus (weilge-like).

[^104]:    * Thus an, 2 Sam. xx. 19, and on Phenician coins, stands for mother-city, $\mu$ eтpómodis (comp. $\mu \eta \tau \frac{\eta}{\eta}$, mater), and by the same figure the inhahitants were called sons of the country, as sons of Zion, Ps. cxlix. 2; sons of Bulylon, Eze. xxiii. 10 (comp. son of the house, son of the womb).
    $\dagger$ As this word pip is usually masce, we find also in the others more or less fluctuation in the gember.
    $\ddagger$ Here belongs the poetical personification of a people as a female, e.g. Is. xlvii. 1.1 ; liv. 1 seq.; Eze. xvi.; I.ama. i.
     |iverur Ps. xxii. 16.
    If The partienlars are found in the Lexicon. Some of these worls, moreover, have the feminine-ending, ns
     as masculine, from a misapprehension of their orisin.

[^105]:    * By transferring an expression for numerical quantity to geometrical (comp. No. 4, Rem. 1). The language has nther examples of the designation of great and many by the same word (see 2ר, ロiּ3).
    $\dagger$ Comp. the same use of the plur. in $\tau \dot{a}$ a $\sigma \tau \dot{\epsilon} p v a, ~ \tau \dot{a} \nu \hat{\omega} \tau \pi$, pracordia, cervices, fauces.
    $\ddagger$ Somewhat like is the use of we hy kings when speaking of themselves (Ezra iv. 18; vii. 24; conp. 1 Mac. x. 19; xi. 31), a mode of speaking which is then applied to God (Gen. i. 26; xi. 7; Is. vi. 8). The Jewish grammarians call suel a plural תinin ? or plur. majestaticus. The use of the plural as a form of respectful address, as modern languages have it, is somewhat different from the Hebrew usige.

[^106]:    ＊All the three methods occur also in Syriac and Nithiopie．See Hoflimanai Giram．Syriacu，p．251；Ludulfi Grum．ZEthiopica，p． 139.

[^107]:    * Exactly so among the Attics, ó AӨךvaios, ó Eupaxóoъos.

[^108]:    * In these particulars (relating to the omission of the definite article, viz., before proger name before nomes in construction with a genitive or with a possessive pronoun, and before predicates), the usagn of our languare corresponds to that of the Hebrew. The same is true of the Celtic tongues. In Greek, it is yuite uthernise, the article being freely used in all these cases exeept the last.-'T's.

[^109]:    * In Greek and Latin, the genitive is employed in the same manner, as tristis animi; see Ruhnken. ad Vell. Paterculum, 2, 93.
     where the arrangement 2 Sam. xiii. 39 , like Cicero consul, is of rare occurrence.

[^110]:    * It would be contrary to the Hebrew idion to say must he expressell hy
    $\dagger$ In Latin, the genitive is similarly used after injuriu (Cars. 13. (Gall. 1, 30), metus (like molus hostium, mefus Pompeii), spes, and other words. Comp. Aul. Gell. 9, 12. In Greek compare míutis raí Geuí, dúgos toí atanpaí, 1 Cor. 1. 18.

[^111]:    * Philologically considered, the Gascon says no less correctly la fille à Mr. N., than the written language la fille de -; the former expresses the idea of belonging, the latter that of descent. The Arabians distinguish a twoford genitive; viz., one which has the force of $\zeta$, and one which has that of p . We have the latter conception of this relation in the $d e$ of modern languages that are derived from the Latin (the Romance languages). In Greek,
     Syutar, p. S8).

[^112]:    * The constr. state appears also before תی, the sign of the accusative, in Jer. xxxiii. 2.2, "
    $\dagger$ So in English, York-strect, Covent-grarelen, for near Covent-garden. But in Iatin the genitive is used in such cases, as Auguste Virdelicormm.

[^113]:    ＊תin，which，in close connexion with a following word and without the tone，becomes ${ }^{-\pi N \text { and and then again with }}$ the tone ת心，is properly a sulstantive derived from a pronominal stem．It signifies essence，substance（comp．तins a sign），hut in construction with a following noun or suffix it stands for the pronoun ipse，aitós（comp．a similar usage in $\$ 124$ ，Rem．3）．But in common use it has so little stress，that it only points out a definite olject． Its force is here as feeble as that of the ollique eases aùroû，aùrê，aỉróv；ipsi，ipsum；Germ．dessellen，demselben，
     not stronger than tò oipavóv．That תی̣ may denote also the nominative，is not of itself inconceivable，and appears to be actually the case in some instances，like IIag．ii．17， 2 Kings xviii． 30 （yet it is wanting in the parallel passage Is．xxxvi．15），perlaps also Jos．xxii．17，Dan．ix．13．Yet in other places，which some rather reckon with the foregoing（e．g． 2 Sam．xi． 25, Neh．ix． 3 ，and even 1 Sam．xvii． 34 ），it may be considered as a loosely－ governed accusative，which it certainly designates when connected with the passive（see § 143，1，a）．In Eze．xlvii． $17,18,19, \pi$ stands for $\pi \times i$ ，an 1 perhaps ought to be so emended in the text；comp．verse 20.

[^114]:    *So in the Greek, but only pretically, II. i. 317, cuioon 80oipaviv ikc.

[^115]:    * There exists in Arabic a strengthened form for the superlative and comparative, which would be like Purhaps of this origin are constant, peremial, although these forms have lost their foree and remain as solitary traces, in the same way as the Lat. comparative disappears in the Italian, and still more in French, and its place supplied by eireumlocution (with più, plus).

[^116]:    * The possessive pronoun may be expressed ly circumlocution, after the manner of the Aramæan ; Ruth ii. 21,
     hy another in the genitive, as in 1 Sam. xvii. 40. (Comp. the analogous circumlocution for the genitive, $\S 115$.) In this case there is sometimes a pleonastic use of the suffix, as as. iii. 7 ; comp. i. 6 .

[^117]:    
    

[^118]:    * Very rare are the examples in which the preposition befure rever refe, ns with us, to the relative itself, viz.
    
    
    $\dagger$ The Arabic omits the relative when the substantive to which it refers is imdeterminate, ns alnve; but inserts it when the substantive is determinate. In the latter ease, the Hehrew commonly inserts it in prose (see Jir. xxiii. 39; Ex. xiv. 13); though it is sometimes omitted, Ex. xwiii. 20; 2 Sam. wiii. 14; especinlly in pertry, I's. xviii. 3 ; xlix. 13, 21 ; Deut. xxxii. 17 ; Jol iii. 3.

[^119]:    * So also in the German of Luther's time, as er machte ihn einen Rock (where ihm stands for sich), which may be literally rendered into old-fashioned English thus, he male him (i. e. for himself) a coat.-Tr.
    $\dagger$ M. (i. Schwartze, Liopt. Gram. Berlin, 1850, p. 346, 351.

[^120]:    ＊Much nearer the mark would be the distinction of them intu Actio perfecter and Actio infecha，accurling to the designation introluced into Latin grammar after Varro．

[^121]:    * Similar in Latin are novi, memini, oà.

[^122]:    * The assurance that something will happen, can also serve to express the wish that something may hapleng.
    
     here unquestionable. In Arabic, likewise, the Pret. is cmployed in wishes and ohtestations. In Meb. furtber. Joh xxi. 16, the comsel of the wiched following the Imperative, in No. 6, c.

[^123]:    ＊When these particles have a different signification，the Future is not used；e．g．＂$\because$ ，because，with the Pret． Julges ii．20，
    $\dagger$ The particle $\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{T}}(\$ 105)$ gives to the verb the foree of a request and of a wish．On its use with the first person，see § 128，I．
    $\ddagger$ When ${ }_{\mathrm{N}} \mathrm{N}$ signifies then in respect to future time，this form of the verb has a future sense（Ex．xii．48）．

[^124]:    * On the cases under $a$ and $b$, see ahove in $\S 127,3, b$ and $c$.
    $\dagger$ This construction may perhaps be accounted for by supposing, that what was thus put in the Future was conceived of as relaticely future, i. e. as later than and subsequent to what had been expressed by the preceding Preterite. This conjecture will obviously hold good in the first example given above. Compare Rödiger's own view of the Preterite in § 125.-Tr.
    $\ddagger$ The preceding Pret. is, at times, only implied in the sense, e. g. Gen. xi. I0, Shem (was) 100 years old

[^125]:    - Analogous is the form of menace in the comic writers, vapula, Terent. Phorm. V. 6, 10, vapulare te jubeo, l'laut. Curculio, IV. 4, 12.

[^126]:    * Here the $\dot{I} u f$. constr. is always used. But when several suceessive infinitives are to have n prepasition, it is often written only before the first; and the second, before which it is to he suppliet hy the mind, stands in the absolute form, as xliv. 17. This ease is analogous with that explained in $\S 121,3$. Cump. also No. 4. $a$, of this seretion.
    $\dagger$ On the accusative as a casus adverthatlis, see § 118. In Arabic it takes, in this cnse, the sign of the accusative, In general, the Iuf. absol. answers in most enses (see Nos. 1, 2, 3, of this section) to the accumative of the Infinitive, to which No. 4 :ilso is to be referred.

[^127]:    * As much as to say, I understand well wherefure thou art grone, viz., from earnest longing. The Vulgate renders it, esto, ad tuos ire cupiebas.

[^128]:    
     pp. 9, 10).
    $\dagger$ In cases like the last, is common in Arabic; but since in other instances $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ is used, and since a form like connexion, which form would decidedly mark the constr. state and also the genitive relation, we must suppose that the Hebrews considered, at least as a general rule, the object of the Inf. to be in the accusative. Compare Nos. 2. and 3.

[^129]:    * Examples of an accusative of the olject with the Inf. passive, see $\S 1+43,1, a$.

[^130]:    * In Syriac and Chaldee, it is more frequently used for the Present than in its proper signification as a Participle.
    $\dagger$ For the use of the article here before the predicate, see $\S 110,3$, Rem.
    $\ddagger$ In Syriac, the Present is expressed by interficiens ego (comp. letter a), and the Imperfect by interficiens fui $=$ interjiciebam.

[^131]:    * Sometimes, on the contrary, the impersonal dicunt must be understom as strictly the pasive dicilur, Joh vii. :3, nights of pain have they appointed me, for are appointed me (sc. hy Goul); iv. 19; xvil. 12; xxxii. 15 ; xxxiv. 20 . So in Chaldee very frequently (Dan. ii. 30 ; iii. $4 ;$ v. 3), mul in Syriac.

[^132]:    
    $\dagger$ The ILebrews used also, on the other hand, the instrumenti where we have the accusative. They used indifferently, as we also may, the constructions to shake the head (Ps. xxii. s), and to shake with the head (Jub xvi. 4); to guash the teeth (Ps. xxxv. 16), and to gnash with the teeth (Job xvi. 9), where heall and teeth may be regarded as the object of the verb and as the instrument. But there is a deviation from our mode of expression in these phrases, viz.,
     לוֹ

[^133]:    * On the passives of these werhes ser $\S 143,1$.

[^134]:    
    
    
    

[^135]:    * Comp. Olshausen Eimendutionen zum A. T., S. 2.1, 25.

[^136]:    * But see IIengstenberg's Psalmen, II., p. 415. Philology requires no other than the simple and natural construction, "Thy throne, O God!" 太e., which is given in all the ancient versions as well as in our own.-Tr.

[^137]:     the subject (2 Kings v. 26), or an aherhial expression (Ps. vi. : \%).

[^138]:    * Stich a case absolute may also have ? (in respect to) hefore it, e. g. Ps. xvi. 3; Is. xxxii. 1.

[^139]:    * Sallust. Jugurth. I4, pars in crucem acti, purs bestiis olyjecti.
    $\dagger$ then is here and there eonstrued with the plur. only in the older biblical lumks, nat in cortain forms of expression which perhaps had their origin in polythecism. Gen, xx. 13; xxa. 7 : Fi, xxii. : Ps lviii. 12. The later writers stuliously aroid this construction, as pulytheistic; comp. Fix xxaii. I, so and Neh. ix. I4: y Sam. vii. 23, and 1 Chron. xvii. 21. See the Lexicon [translated by S. P. 'Trgatles. Samurl Bapapren nul Suns].
    $\ddagger$ Perfectly analogous is the Greck eonstruction tio $\pi$ pribura Buture, where the Alties admit the plural ouly when
     of men), and is construcal elichly with the fem. sing., like all its so-called pluralua fracta (collective furm-).

[^140]:    * Independently of this arrangement, the Niה, standing for the copula, is retained between plur. and fem
     Comp. Jer. x. 3

[^141]:    
    

[^142]:    * In the same manner are used oik (uonue?) and $\mu \eta^{\prime}$; the former (Hom. $\Pi . \times \mathbf{x}$ 165, iv. 242) in expectation of nu athirmative, the latter (Ody.ss. vi. 200) of a negative answer.
    $\dagger$ So in Greek and Latin, originally affirnative and then interrogative are $\bar{\eta}$, num (=nunc), an (probably, perhaps); osiginally negative and then interrogative,-oik, $\mu \dot{\eta}$, , ne; in German, nicht wahr? (not true?) nicht? (not?)

[^143]:    * In a similar manner, wְ whut? [why?], spoken with indigmation, expresses prohilition under the form of reproach or expostulation. Cant. viii. 4 , מָה is very frequent in the Arabic.
    $\dagger$ See Ileindorf ull Plat. Phadr. 266; Heusinger ul Cic. le Off. iii. 1\%.

[^144]:    * Amnng these we reckon such forms as ל? ל? , which in themselves considered are indeed compound words, lut as prepostions they express only one idea, and are thus distinguished from the compounds under No. 2, c. g. '
     he presents the idea fully; -while it is but half expressed in the Fr. il prend le chupeau sur la luble, the Gern. or nimmt den IIut rom Tische weg [and the Eing. he takeshis hat from the tuble], the Fr. omitting one relation, the Girm. [and Ener.] another.

[^145]:    * Comp. § 107. 1, licm., § 1 1i, Lem. 1.

[^146]:    * See fuller particulars un the use of Vav copulative, in Gesenius's Thesaurus I. p. 393 et seqq.

[^147]:    ＊See especially Gesenius＇s Iteb．Lexicon，translated ly 1）r．＇Tregelles．
    $\dagger$ Sce，on these groups of particles，Gesenims＇s Thesourus 11．p． $65^{\circ} 2$.

[^148]:    * The accent or tone of words in these Phrases is always at the end, except when marked on the penultime by the $\operatorname{sign}(\geq)$, or by one of the regular accents (§ 15) 。

[^149]:    －Sometimes the proportion or correspondence appears only in expression，whlute the thought runs on in the comenon was of prose，as in Job ix．2，3， 4.

    + It is very often of essential service to the interpreter af scripture to notice this parallelism．There are numerese er－ pressions and passages to the meaning of which a clue tray thus be obtained．For example，in l＇s Lexis 3 ｜his taternicle is ごデる，and his duelling plate in Kun it has been doubted Whether $\mathrm{E}^{-2+2}$ means in peace or in Salem ：but the doubt con scarcely remain when one considers the corresponding claus， where in Zion stands parallel to the term in question，and determines it to mean in Satem．

[^150]:    * This passage strikingly exhibits rhyme as well as parallelism. The same is found in many other poetic sentences; c. $g$. in Job vi. we find it six times, viz, in vs. $4,7,9,13,22$,

[^151]:    
    

[^152]:    * For the sounds of the consonants and rowels, as here employed to express the Hebrew pronunciation, see § $G$ with Notes* on pages 17 and 20 , also $\S 10$. On Hebrew syllables, see § 26 .

[^153]:    * See §5, Rem. 4.

[^154]:    －has both vowels unchangeable（see jage $130^{\circ}$ ，N， 1 ， Rem．）

